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Director-General of Education in India

OCCASIONAL REPORTS

No. 5

THE TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

H. R. JAMES
H. SHARP
J. NELSON FRASER

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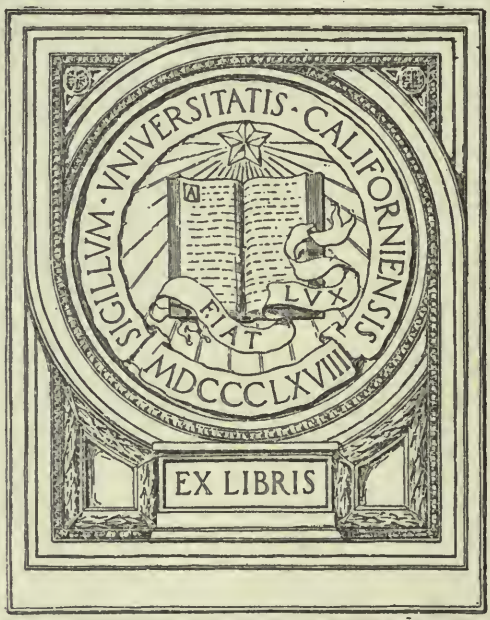

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UNIV. OF
CALIFORNIA

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TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

i.—IN THE UNITED KINGDOM
H. R. James

ii.—IN PRUSSIA AND AMERICA
H. Sharp

iii.—IN BOMBAY
J. Nelson Fraser

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Carpenter

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1.—TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR SECONDARY TEACHERS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

BY

H. R. JAMES, M.A.,

Principal of the Presidency College, Calcutta.

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PREFACE

MY chief wish in presenting this report is that it may be of some slight service to the cause of training in secondary education here and in England. Whatever value it may have in this regard—and that may well be very small—it is the outcome of experiences which have to me been very interesting and pleasant. The pleasantness has been mainly due to the great kindness I have throughout received from all with whom this holiday task has brought me into relation—from officials at the India Office, from the Board of Education, from the heads of the institutions I have visited, and many others engaged in training. This gratitude is specially due to my old schoolfellow at Westminster, Dr. H. F. Heath, Director of Special Inquiries and Reports, whose good offices have been constant and unwearying; also to Mr. P. A. Barnett, His Majesty's Chief Inspector of Training Colleges. Mr. Barnett's suggestions, based on a unique experience of training, both theoretical and practical, proved of the greatest service. I have received kindness from so many others that it is impossible to acknowledge the debt individually; but my thanks are due in special to Professor Adams of London University and the London Day Training College, to Professor Findlay at Manchester, and to Mr. Keatinge, Reader in Education at Oxford, because the trial of their patience has been longer continued. I am only in this particular less indebted to Professor Welton at Leeds, to Dr. Fletcher at Cambridge, to Professor Archer at Bangor, to Professor Hughes at Birmingham, to Dr. Lloyd Morgan at Bristol, to Professor Green at Sheffield, to Professor Darroch at Edinburgh and to many others. I remember with special pleasure my visits to St. Mary's Hall, Mount Pleasant, Liverpool; to the Ladies' College, Cheltenham; to Stonyhurst College; to the Borough Road Training College, Isleworth; to Mr. David Salmon at Swansea. To Miss Hodge, Secretary to the Maria Grey College, I am under obligations in respect of secondary

training which date from much earlier than these furlough studies and which have outlasted them. Very exceptional also is my debt to Dr. Dörr, Director of the Liebig Realschule, Bockenheim, Frankfort-on-Main: he has lavished the ripe fruits of his distinguished career as teacher and pioneer in teaching and training on a stranger, who is however not unmindful of the greatness of the obligation.

H. R. JAMES.

CALCUTTA,
The 29th October 1907.

TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR SECONDARY TEACHERS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

I.—CONSIDERATIONS LEADING TO THIS STUDY OF THE SUBJECT.

FOR a long time past in Bengal the lion's share of attention and interest has been given to the University colleges. This has been more than ever the case during the last five or six years in the movement culminating in the Universities Bill of 1904, which has given a new constitution and new regulations to the five Indian universities. The new regulations of the Calcutta University received their final sanction in August 1906, and for the time being all has been done for the improvement of higher education that can be done by university regulations. But it begins to be discovered, if indeed it has not been apparent all along, that the attempt to reform collegiate education must fall short of success, unless it is accompanied by radical improvement of the secondary schools.

The reasons for t' is are sufficiently obvious. The great majority of college students come from the high English schools. Weakness in the schools prejudices the work of the colleges in two special ways—boys come from the schools with bad habits difficult to unlearn; their English is so deficient that they are unfit for the work that is expected of them. No one seriously concerned for the improvement of education in our colleges can fail to see that to a large extent the colleges are dependent on the schools, and that no reform of higher

the aid of this device of special formal training. Even now no country in the world, save Germany, has a complete system of secondary training, and Germany with doubtful completeness. Training came in as a practical institution in the course of the 18th century under the impetus given to educational activity by Pestalozzi and other thinkers. Training colleges were only organized as a system in the first half of the 19th century to meet the needs of universal popular education, then first beginning to be recognized as a national obligation. In England and America these date from about 1840. The movement for secondary training, though as an idea it had the priority, only begins to show itself actively in England about 1870. Since then the expansion of the movement has been striking; but at the English universities, especially at the two great universities which have the prestige of age and of authority, there is still much indifference to, even opposition to, training. Moreover, the advances which have really been made in secondary training have been mainly among women teachers; men still show themselves very backward in taking advantage of the facilities for training now opened to them. Most disconcerting of all is the feeble support given to training by the head-masters of public schools and grammar schools. That those who are most practically interested in getting fully qualified men as school-masters should continue to be distrustful of training and should apparently attach little weight in the appointment of their assistants to the consideration whether a candidate has been through a course of professional training or not, is a stubborn fact very hard to reconcile with the claims of the advocates of training. For it would seem that if training is what it professes to be, and can do what it aspires to do, the advantage of the trained over the untrained assistant master should soon make itself so sensibly felt, that no head of a school would be willing to accept an untrained man, if he could get a trained man; or, at all events, that the practical value of training would by this time be so clear and beyond question, that every effort would be made to induce intending schoolmasters to pass through a course of training. One would expect that the collective weight of head-masters' influence would be

thrown decisively on that side. It certainly has not been so yet. It can scarcely be doubted that if head-masters as a body were seriously convinced of the value of training and chose to making training a condition of, or even an important consideration for, appointment, training would soon become indispensible. The very fact that this result had not come about showed conclusively that there was room for reasonable doubt, whether the effective training of the secondary teacher was not after all an aspiration rather than a reality.

It seemed to me, therefore, that the training of the secondary teacher was a fair subject for independent enquiry, a study which might even be approached with some openness of mind, at any rate as regards its application under Indian conditions. I greatly desired to see for myself what exactly the training of the teacher means in practice, and what was actually being done in England in the way of training teachers for the most special work of secondary education.

Limits of the enquiry.

Accordingly I was very glad of the opportunity which the Despatch of the Government of India of October 1902 opened to me, of undertaking such an enquiry as a furlough study. The official support of the India Office makes easy much that would otherwise be difficult, and brings with it many advantages, the chief among them being the help and advice of the Board of Education at Whitehall. I beg to express my sense of the high value of these privileges. My proposal was to study the training of teachers for secondary schools within the limits of the United Kingdom, and I have been placed on special duty for six months during furlough for the purpose.

My application was designedly confined to secondary training, and it should be clearly understood what is implied in this limitation. The best known and most numerous training colleges in the United Kingdom are the colleges training teachers for the public elementary schools. These are the institutions more usually meant, when training colleges are spoken of. Training for primary school teaching has been an established system in England for over sixty years. There are now nearly seventy such colleges, forty-nine resident, and twenty day training colleges, under inspection by the Board

of Education. The students in training last year numbered close on 8,000. That the primary school teacher should be trained is a fully accepted principle; whether the secondary teacher should also be trained is a distinct and separate question concerning which there is still much difference of opinion. The provision for secondary training is also for the most part separately organized. But the separation, though real, is not absolute. Secondary training has—in England at all events—been a later development, following on the successful establishment of primary training, and its fortunes have been partly conditioned by the fact of this historical relation. At most of the universities the secondary training is a department, though a separate department, of the day training college; not infrequently some part of the training is common. There are also those who hold as a principle that there should be one course of training for all teachers; that teachers should be trained together whether their work is ultimately to be done in the primary or secondary school. So in studying secondary training one is at many points in touch with the earlier system of training for primary schools. Indeed, nothing can be more instructive at the outset of a study of secondary training than to see a well-managed institution of the primary type in working. For all that, the training of the secondary teacher is at the present time, as already said, a distinct question; the provision to give such training is in the main an organization apart; and the course of training is always differently conditioned. It was this secondary training only which was directly my subject of investigation.

II.—SECONDARY TRAINING IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Outline of Procedure.

I began my period of special duty in October 1906, this being the time of year at which the year's course of training most usually begins. In the three months from October to December, I visited most of the institutions in England, Wales and Scotland at which special courses of training are provided for secondary teachers (some twenty in all), and also two resident training colleges for elementary teachers.

In February and March of this year, I spent longer periods of time in London, Manchester and Oxford, in order to study training in connection with the Universities of London, Oxford and Manchester more in detail. In May, with the special permission of the Secretary of State for India, I went to Frankfort-on-Main to see how English is taught in German schools.

In all this I had the benefit of the advice of the Board of Education.

The objects I had specially before me in my study were broadly:—

(1) To understand as fully and accurately as possible what is being done at the present time in England, Scotland and Wales for the training of teachers in secondary schools.

(2) To form some estimate of the success of this training and of the value of the trained teacher for the work of secondary schools.

(3) To draw my own conclusions as to the probability of the success of similar methods, duly adapted to Indian needs, in the training of teachers for high English schools in Bengal.

(4) Incidentally also to study, as opportunity offered, newer methods of language teaching with a view to the improvement of the teaching of English in Indian schools.

The thorough-going reorganization of secondary education in Bengal is an ulterior end to which I have also ventured to look.

Secondary Training in England and Wales.

A special course of theoretical and practical training for teaching in secondary schools can now be followed at any of thirteen universities and university colleges in England and Wales, namely, at the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, London, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Birmingham, Sheffield; and at the University Colleges at Aberystwyth, Bangor, Cardiff, Bristol: also at King's College, London. These courses are open to men and women alike, except in the case of Cambridge, which is for men only, and Bristol which only trains women. All are of comparatively recent institution, one, the

Sheffield course, was in process of organization in October of last year: London dates from 1902, Cambridge from 1897, Manchester from 1895: none goes back earlier than 1891. All but Oxford work the secondary training more or less closely in association with a day training college for elementary teachers. There is secondary training also at the Armstrong College, Newcastle.

Special diplomas or certificates are granted (after examination) by all the universities above named, as also by the university of Durham. The Cambridge Teachers' Certificate was the earliest instituted, dating from 1880. The London Diploma dates from 1883; the Oxford from 1896.

The College of Preceptors also conducts examinations and awards diplomas: has done so since 1847. (See Note A, p. 73.)

Members of the Jesuit Society intended for teaching work in Jesuit schools are trained at St. Mary's Hall, Stonyhurst. (See Note B, p. 74.)

There are besides nine secondary training colleges or training departments attached to colleges, for women only. These are: the Maria Grey Training College, the Datchelor College (Camberwell), Bedford College (Training Department), the Catholic Training College (Cavendish Square), and St. Mary's College (Paddington)—all in London; St. Mary's Hall, Mount Pleasant, Liverpool; the Ladies' College, Cheltenham (Training Department); the Cambridge Training College for Women Teachers; and Cherwell Hall, Oxford. The training colleges for women have had a long lead in the pioneer work of secondary training. The Maria Grey College, the first founded, goes back to 1878, and a beginning of training was made at the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, as early as 1877; next come the Cambridge College, in 1885; Datchelor College, 1888; Bedford College, 1892; the Catholic Training College, 1896; and later, St. Mary's, Paddington, 1901; Cherwell Hall, 1905.

These colleges prepare candidates for the Cambridge Teachers' Certificate, and for the London Diploma: Cherwell Hall for the Oxford Diploma also.

Secondary Training in Scotland.

At the Scotch Universities of Edinburgh, Aberdeen and Glasgow, there are arrangements for the training of teachers, but secondary training is not separated from primary, except in respect of practice in schools.*

At Edinburgh there is a training college for women, St. George's Training College, founded in 1886, on the same lines as the sister institutions in England, and doing similar good work.

Edinburgh University grants a special Secondary School Diploma, but the examination is the same as for the General School-master's Diploma: the special secondary diploma is given to candidates passing the examination, who possess certain higher academical qualifications.

A special secondary diploma is also granted at Glasgow.

It is interesting to note that Edinburgh and St. Andrew's were the first British Universities to found professorships of education. The "Bell" chairs of the Theory, History, and Art of Education were founded at these Universities in 1876. All the younger universities in England now, including London, have professorships of Education and so have the three Welsh University Colleges.

Secondary Training in Ireland.

Diplomas are granted by Dublin University, and by the Royal University of Ireland, but I understand that there is very little special organization for the training of secondary teachers.

Value of the work done.

I may claim to have seen a good deal of the actual work of training. My general impression is that, despite the smallness of the numbers in some cases, and especially the extreme fewness of the men being trained except at Oxford, Cambridge, and Manchester, serious and strenuous work of real value and significance is being done in the aggregate. Even where the numbers are least, the aim is high, the organization complete

* New regulations which remodel the whole system of the training of teachers in Scotland, and for the first time bring under regulation the training of teachers of secondary schools were issued by the Scotch Education Department in 1906, and these largely supersede the work of the universities in relation to training. The arrangements for secondary training in Scotland are therefore in course of transition and the new departure is of the greatest importance. I have thought it better to state here what I found actually in operation in November 1906 and to add a brief account of the new system in a separate note (see Note C., p 76).

and adequate, the ability and purposefulness of the training staff beyond question. Secondary training is vigorously alive to-day in England; still an infant, but a sturdy infant: and I am convinced that it is wisdom to keep it alive and strengthen its growth by all practicable means. There is not merely something useful to be picked up by going through a course of training, but such an abundance of things worth learning, that it is difficult to conceive that any one whose work in life was to be teaching could pass through the course and not have profited in many ways. For myself, there was hardly a lesson or a lecture I attended from which I did not learn something new and valuable. My settled opinion is that if a man or a woman can go through a training course, such as I have had glimpses of, and literally gain nothing, the fault must be in the learner—some wilful vice of obtuseness or self-sufficiency. There is not merely something in training, but nearly everything.

The work of the Training Course.

There is no exact uniformity, but, broadly speaking, the scheme of training at all the universities and training colleges in which there is secondary training covers the same ground. A complete course of training is everywhere regarded as comprising two quite distinct forms of activity, study by means of books, lectures and discussions, of subjects expected to afford guidance to the teacher in his work; actual practice in teaching. This distinction of the theoretical and practical sides of training is found in all prospectuses of training courses, explicitly or implicitly. At the same time it is universally recognized that theory and practice must not be kept separate and apart, and the endeavour everywhere is to bring the two sides into close and vital relation to each other. Approximately the same studies are included everywhere under theory, and practice follows the same general method of class-teaching under supervision. This general likeness of plan and method is not, however, to be understood as excluding important differences in detail. More or less stress is laid on certain parts of theoretical study at different seats of training and the means employed to provide classes for practice differ widely.

The aim is to give the teacher an all-round preparation for his work. He is to gain an insight into the principles that lie

behind his practical work as a teacher, and which raise the art of education to the plane of science; at the same time he is to make his first essays in teaching with the help of the advice and supervision of experienced teachers. Theory and practice are to go hand in hand: the student is, to the best of his ability, to carry out in his class-teaching the principles affirmed in the lecture-room, or gathered from private study. His work as a whole will, however, present these two sides already distinguished—(I) A literary and reflective side, educational theory in a comprehensive sense; (II) A technical and active side, preparing and giving lessons to classes of real school-boys.

I. Under theory is ranged a group of subjects, a sufficient knowledge of each of which is held on various accounts to be indispensable to the teacher, if his equipment is to be complete. They fall naturally under three leading heads—(*i*) Principles of education as a science, or theory of education in the stricter sense; (*ii*) Mental sciences, on which the theory of education is dependent, sometimes treated as a part of that theory, sometimes separately studied; (*iii*) History of education.

(*i*) Theory of Education covers the whole ground of the principles of teaching and school management. This part of the theoretical training is, of course, closely allied to practice, some of its sub-divisions could be treated equally well under the head of practice. The technical heads are school organization and management, discipline, school hygiene, co-ordination or correlation of studies, curricula, methods of teaching, including both the special methods of the separate school subjects (History, Arithmetic, Latin, French, and so on) and the principles of teaching in general. It is these last which carry us back into the sphere of the mental sciences, Psychology, and Logic, while school discipline and class management take us within the borders of Ethics, especially in relation to the ends of education.

(*ii*) Psychology nearly always stands as a distinct heading in the syllabus of studies; psychological study in some way or other invariably forms part

of the training course. It is agreed that some examination of mental processes and of the characteristics of children as contrasted with their elders ought to find place in a teacher's course of training; it is disputed how deep the study should go, and whether it should be pursued at all in detachment from the immediate problems of educational work. The extreme view on one side is that a full formal course of Psychology should be an essential part of the qualification for a diploma in education, and on the other that all the psychology that is needed may be introduced incidentally as part of the theory of education. At any rate there is always some psychology. The case of Ethics and Logic is similar, but the reasons for their formal study are less cogent; and accordingly the express mention of Logic and Ethics in the syllabus is found with far less regularity.

(*iii*) There is complete unanimity as to the introduction of the History of Education as a subject; naturally, the subject being a large one, there is much variation in the limits thought convenient. London studies the "Historical Evolution of Educational Ideals" and "The Works and Writings of Great Teachers" together with "The Study of School Systems in Operation at Home and Abroad;" Birmingham, "The History of Educational Ideas;" Manchester, "Portions of the History of Education;" Oxford, "Education in Europe from 1720 to 1800." The limitation most usually adopted, as specifically at Leeds, Liverpool, the Welsh colleges and by the Cambridge Teachers' Training Syndicate, is the History of Educational thought in Europe from the Renaissance: the Leeds' syllabus adds "with special reference to England and special emphasis on the Nineteenth Century." At

Sheffield the selection of material is to be twofold—(*a*) The Educational doctrines and influence of Locke, Rousseau, and Pestalozzi; (*b*) English education during the 19th century. The more careful study of a special book or books, or of a special subject, is sometimes added. Liverpool prescribes Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel. Oxford recommends Rousseau's 'Emile,' Pestalozzi's 'How Gertrude teaches Her Children,' and Kant's 'Tractate on Education.' For the Oxford diploma, there is also always a special subject, which may be historical. For the Cambridge certificate, special books or subjects are prescribed which vary from year to year; for 1907 and 1908 they are (*i*) John Amos Comenius; and (*ii*) Milton's "Tractate on Education." London has both special books and special subjects. For 1907 Bacon's "Advancement of Learning" and the "Outlines of Educational History in the Seventeenth Century." For 1908 Rousseau's "Emile" and "The Outline of Educational History in the Eighteenth Century." A most useful branch of historical study is added in the New Edinburgh Scheme (practically adopted for all Scotland)—a course of 20 lectures on Present Day Problems (see Note C).

For convenience of reference and comparison the full range of the training course on the side of lectures and book study may be summarized under the eight heads: Psychology; Logic; Ethics; History of Education; School organization and management; Hygiene; General Method; Special Methods. It may be said with substantial truth that there are lecture courses covering all these subjects, though not necessarily separate courses in case of each. There is a special course of Physiology in one or two cases (at Liverpool and at the Maria Grey College); on Psycho-physiology also at Liverpool. Special courses of instruction are also usually, almost invariably at the women's training colleges, provided in Voice

Production, Blackboard Drawing, and Swedish Drill. These may be either part of the necessary course or optional. Nature study, Phonetics, Needlework, and Gardening appear in one or more cases.

Genesis of Course of Studies.

The reasons that have shaped the course to this group of subjects are fairly easy to understand. It is recognized that if a schoolmaster is to fulfil all the obligations of his office, he must know many things besides the subject which he teaches and know them in a systematic way. Even to teach at all, he must know more than his subject or subjects; he must know *how* to teach his subject, that is to say, he must have a knowledge of *Special Method*. The method of teaching any given subject is necessarily based on the principles of teaching in general, and can only be properly understood in the light of those principles. The teacher must have a knowledge of *General Method*. This leads straight to *Psychology*. Teaching and learning are mental processes; to understand how learning is possible at all, the nature of the process, and so what makes it easier and what helps to make it permanent; what hindrances there are to learning, and how they may be overcome, are all problems strictly psychological. In school work, too, we have to do with children of various ages up to adolescence, their minds are growing minds, varying in their degrees of maturity at different stages. To teach and manage growing boys and girls it is imperative to know something of the way the mind strengthens and develops from infancy upward, how children naturally think and feel and act at successive stages of school life, what occupations, and forms of instruction are suited to their growing powers at these various stages. These are all psychological problems. Sound psychological insight whether acquired from book study, or largely a gift of nature, can alone save from grotesque errors which have often enough hampered and frustrated the ends of education in the past, and still continue to do so. In a few rare instances the natural gift may suffice: in most cases the required knowledge can only be assured by definite psychological study—and that hardly. *Logic* follows because knowledge is based on logical foundations; and the whole doctrine of method is a branch of Logic. *Ethics* because the

problems of discipline and school management are essentially ethical problems; and the formation of character is increasingly acknowledged to be the true goal of education. The ends of education are ethical ends. *School organization* is a necessary part of a teacher's training, because it is not enough that he should be competent to deal with a class as a separate unit. The work of the class is rightly regarded only in relation to the whole school, which involves an intelligent apprehension of the principles which should regulate the arrangement of a school in classes, the choice of subjects to be studied, the gradation and co-ordination of studies in the ascending order of classes. The competent teacher must understand the organization of the school as a whole. His training course should give him that understanding, or at all events should endow him with the capacity to take an intelligent interest in it. *School Hygiene* is merely a part of school organization distinctive enough and important enough to be treated separately. With the governing authorities of the schools it is a vital question, but even for the ordinary form master sound knowledge of healthy conditions of work, including the conditions of effort and fatigue, are of great importance to the well-being of the class. The recognition of all these claims is the outcome of the increasing attention which has been paid during the last three hundred and fifty years to the scientific aspects of education under the inspiration of a succession of great thinkers and innovators. Therefore, finally, a study of the *History of Education*, of the origin and progressive acceptance of educational ideas and principles, is rightly considered to be one of the most inspiring and beneficial influences under which the young teacher can be brought.

II. Practice usually includes several other devices for learning how to teach besides actual teaching: watching of lessons given by good teachers; advice as to the preparation of lessons; formal preparation of notes of lessons; criticism or open lessons followed by discussion; visits to schools for general observation and comparison; the individual study of children. These forms of practice are found generally: more special exercises are combined with these at some of the train-

ing colleges, such as practice in class questioning, in oral examination, in mental arithmetic tests, in blackboard illustration, in story-telling. Essay writing is often an auxiliary, and special tutorial help is frequently combined with this. So far the practical training is similarly conducted. But there is great variation in the means employed to secure teaching practice, and considerable latitude as to the amount of work done. The main contrast is in the relation of the schools in which teaching is practised to the training institution, the point of difference being whether or not the school is under the direct control of the head of the training institution. In the case of all the university training departments, the teaching practice is obtained at ordinary schools, situated sufficiently near the university or college to be used for the purpose. The arrangements are made by friendly agreement with head-masters and head-mistresses. Primary schools are used as well as secondary, but it is everywhere held to be essential that some part of the practice, usually the main part, should be in a secondary school. That some of the teaching should be in elementary schools is held by many trainers of experience to be not only useful, but even preferable to exclusive practice in secondary schools. The facilities for practice thus secured naturally differ very much according to the kind and number of secondary schools to be found in the university town or near it. In no case do they appear seriously defective, but there have been initial difficulties to overcome, and the admission of students under training into the schools is dependent on the goodwill of the heads of the schools, who are not necessarily favourable to training. The number of students to be provided for, especially in boys' schools, which present the more difficult problem, has been so far too few for a real test. The university training department, however, by its very constitution is not self-sufficing and independent in this respect. It depends for its opportunities of teaching practice on the voluntary co-operation of neighbouring schools. An exceptional feature of peculiar interest is the small demonstration school at Manchester, founded and directed by Professor Findlay. This school, the Fielden Demonstration School, is practically attached to the

university training department; it is freely used for training purposes, and especially for the study of newer and more scientific methods of teaching. There is also a small kindergarten and preparatory school attached to the Women's Training Department at Cardiff, and a similar school at Bangor. Manchester has in addition to the Fielden Demonstration School a primary school and kindergarten.

On the other hand, the women's training colleges have usually a large girls' school specially associated with the training college, and usually under the same control, so that the working problem of arranging students' practice is greatly simplified, or rather is no problem at all. College and school being under one authority, whatever dispositions are thought necessary for students in training can readily be made both as to teaching and the hearing of teaching. Even more important is the corporate association with a school in full working, the mere fact of physical contiguity counting for much. The school, the ultimate object of study, is always there; the students' whole training goes on in presence of the school: the practical details of organization, curricula, discipline, are daily and hourly in evidence; the problems of the lecture-room are receiving continual illustration in the school. It is at once evident that facilities for practical training are much ampler and more elastic under these conditions. The most favourable case of all from this point of view is that of the training department attached to a large and successful high school. The most brilliant example of this conjunction is at the Ladies' College, Cheltenham. The training department there is linked to what is probably the most wonderful organization for girls' education in the world. The student training here is always in presence of a really great and famous school in full working; her first attempts at teaching are made with classes which are integral parts of this great whole, and under the stimulus of a high standard and inspiring traditions. The school itself is an abiding demonstration of the highest possibilities of life in a school community. The conditions as regards the practical side of training may here be said to be ideal. The Datchelor Training College is also an offshoot from the life of a large girls' high school (which

numbers over 500) and is worked in close association with it. The Maria Grey College works in association with a high school numbering 200 and a kindergarten of some 50 children St. Mary's Hall, Liverpool, has its own high school of 200 girls, a pupil teachers' centre under the same roof, and a girls' orphanage within a short distance, all available for students' practice. St. Mary's College, Paddington, the Catholic College, Cavendish Square, and Cherwell Hall, Oxford, also work in association with schools. The Cambridge Training College and Bedford College depend for their practice, like the university training departments, on arrangements with outside schools.

The advantages of this close association with a particular school are so obvious that some of the large girls' schools in the neighbourhood of London are adopting the system of "student-teacherships." The student teacher is attached to the school and assigned to one of the assistant mistresses for guidance and direction in teaching practice. At the same time the student attends the full course of lectures at the London Day Training College, which are specially arranged only in the afternoons. The scheme has been tried with success at the North London Collegiate School and seven other schools are adopting it. I had no opportunity, however, of learning from my own observation or enquiry how the plan works.

At Birmingham also the organization for practical training planned by Professor Hughes is based on similar principles, and deserves special attention. It is provided by the regulations that each candidate for the university diploma shall be specially attached to a particular secondary school, and shall teach and study school methods there under the direction of a particular master or mistress (and the general supervision of the head of the school). Three school mornings a week must be given to this work through the year of training. The lecture courses are all arranged in the afternoon. No less than twenty-seven boys' schools (including Shrewsbury, Repton, Malvern, and Cheltenham) have agreed to co-operate in the scheme, and ten girls' schools. The scheme is admirable in design; the number of students trained at Birmingham has been too few as yet to test it fully.

These schemes are both approximations to a quite distinct plan of training, which has its advocates as an alternative to that of the university training department and the training college, at present the established type in England, namely, training at schools by the school staff, which is very nearly the German system, and closely resembles the Prussian Gymnasial Seminar.

Amount of school work.

The actual amount of teaching done by the student in the year of training differs widely at different institutions, and still more does the total amount of time spent inside a school or schools, as follows evidently from the difference of system just described. It differs not only on this account, but also because it is often said, and rightly said, that the amount and nature of the teaching work assigned differs with the needs of the particular student. Some students show special aptitude for teaching, and others find their novitiate difficult. Sometimes also a student has had previous experience of school work. Oxford, Cambridge, and Manchester definitely prescribe a short period of work at a school away from the university as part of the scheme of training, and it is recommended that this should be taken before the regular training course begins. Oxford requires 'four weeks as a student-teacher' (a second period, when judged necessary). Cambridge 'three weeks' teaching in some school approved by the committee'. There is a similar requirement at Manchester, but the amount of time is not fixed; it varies according to conceptions of the candidate's proficiency. At Edinburgh a term of ten weeks' practical work in a secondary school (with a minimum of eight hours a week) is required of a candidate for the secondary diploma. These special periods of school work stand somewhat outside the ordinary training course, but must be reckoned in any estimate of the total practical work done. At Birmingham the time spent in the school during the year of training would amount to 270 hours. At Manchester the standard taken is four hours a week, which for 30 weeks gives 120 hours. To this the period of ordinary school experience (not less than 40 hours) has to be added. Liverpool definitely prescribes 120 hours as a minimum. At Oxford students are said to spend "some hours daily" in the practising schools

apart from "the four weeks as a student-teacher." Cambridge more definitely lays down the standard as not less than fifteen hours' teaching in each of three terms. At Leeds the amount of school work ordinarily done works out at about five hours a week for all three terms of the course, and more than half of this is actual teaching, continuous courses of lessons in one or more subjects. At the Maria Grey College students give four or five hours a week to school work, at least two hours of this being actual teaching. At St. Mary's Hall, Liverpool, three afternoons and one morning in the week are devoted entirely to work in schools, and each student gives two or three lessons a week. At the Datchelor College the average amount of teaching done by the student is 120 hours, and there are other kinds of school work in liberal measure. At Bedford College each student gives at least two lessons a week throughout the 30 weeks of the year's course: observation of teaching brings the total to 100 hours. At the Cambridge Training College the estimate is four or five lessons a week besides other forms of school work. At all the training colleges full advantage is taken of the association with a special school. Students are entrusted with definite portions of the ordinary work of a particular form and carry it on continuously as part of the ordinary routine. At the Datchelor College the student is fully responsible for her subject and does all the work connected with it. Similarly at Cheltenham the students are placed, as far as possible, in the position of junior teachers. They are responsible in the public and college examinations for the subjects they have taught continuously during the year, and have various other regular duties extending even to taking part in school games.

Estimates in all cases are to be understood as approximate only and they are assumed to be exclusive of criticism lessons and discussions. The total of hours (so far as such calculations are not wholly misleading) may be set down as ranging between 100 hours and 270. Probably no better apportionment of time between lecture courses and work in school can be suggested than that fixed at Birmingham (which is practically the London plan also)—mornings to work in schools, afternoons to lectures.

Most of the teaching and observation and study of school methods goes on in secondary schools, but other kinds of schools are habitually used, in part as a matter of convenience, partly also on principle. There is high authority for making free use of elementary schools. The Reader in Education at Oxford (Mr. M. W. Keatinge) prefers the elementary school for the earlier part of training on the ground that methods of teaching are better learnt there. At Manchester a considerable part of the teaching and observation goes on in the demonstration schools, one of which is a higher elementary, the other a kindergarten and primary school. At the Maria Grey College students teach regularly one hour a week in the high school, one hour in an elementary school. The Cambridge Day Training College uses chiefly a higher grade elementary school close at hand, but there is free access also to the Perse School, and the methods there form a very important part of the practical training of secondary students. It is remarkable that all the women's training colleges, or nearly all, appear to use the elementary school designedly for part of their practice. On the other hand "approved schools" at London, Liverpool, or Manchester are all secondary, and at Birmingham the school is a secondary school by the regulations, and so it is at Sheffield, and the Welsh colleges, at King's College, and at Edinburgh. The generalization nearest in accord with the facts is that the main school work is done at a secondary school; work at other kinds of schools is often deliberately planned, but is subsidiary. Very rightly the system is kept elastic; those who guide the training vary both the kind of school and the amount of time given to teaching, to suit the special requirement of the individual. Some work in a secondary school is in any case held essential and necessary. Kinds of schools used.

It must also be remarked that the most famous English public schools cannot be used, except in so far as they have been willing to receive "student teachers," for the simple reason (if for no other) that they are at too great a distance from the university training centres. In fact not many schools of the old 'public school' type are being used at all. More often it is the new type of county or municipal schools

that are used. Schools of the older type in which I have actually seen work being done in connection with training were St. Edward's School, Oxford; the Perse School, Cambridge; and the Manchester Grammar School. And in these the work being done was really remarkable, especially in the case of the Perse School, Cambridge.

The importance of the practical side of training is amply acknowledged everywhere. Whatever its relative importance, it is manifestly by far the more difficult side of training to organize effectively. Lecture courses are easily schemed out, and the machinery involved is of the simplest. Courses of practical training require special thought and provision in each individual case and even for one student the machinery required is a school or schools. When there are many students and many schools, arrangement is a task of much intricacy, and supervision laborious in the extreme, the physical exertion alone, where several schools have to be visited in succession, being considerable.

Criticism lessons.

The 'criticism lesson,' better called (as at Manchester) the 'open lesson,' is a universal feature of the training course (with one interesting exception, Bristol), and is of first-rate importance to it. Theory and practice meet here on common (and in very truth debatable) ground. The criticism lesson might be called the pivot, or by a bolder metaphor the 'fly-wheel' of the system. The discussions which are its appointed sequel, in fact an integral part of it, answer the purpose of the German Seminar, and are called Seminar meetings at Manchester. The open lesson is so individual and characteristic a feature of the training course, as established in England, that though the name carries sufficient meaning to those who are familiar with training, it will be well to recite here its constitutent parts, and the circumstances that attend it. Briefly it is a lesson given by one of the students under training in the presence of other students and of one or more members of the teaching staff, which is afterwards discussed in full conclave by all who were present to follow it.

(*a*) *The Lesson.*—The lesson otherwise is as like an ordinary lesson as possible, and may be one of a continuous course

of lessons, or a lesson on a subject specially chosen for the occasion. The class may be held either at the school in the ordinary class-room of the class to be taught, or in a lecture-room (or other room) belonging to the training institution. The presence of the other students and of the members of the training staff makes a small material difficulty, but it is usually got over quite easily. The training students are accommodated on special seats which may be either alongside of or behind the school class or sometimes facing it. It is, of course, an important point that the students should have a full view of what is going on and especially of the faces of the boys. At the same time their presence should be as unostentatious as possible. Often a type-written or cyclostyled copy of the teacher's 'note of the lesson' is put into the hands of every one of the spectators. This was done at Cambridge, Bangor, Manchester, and the Oxford Day Training College, to speak only of criticism lessons at which I was actually present. In any case such a 'note' is understood to be somewhere in existence, and the lesson is assumed to have been carefully prepared by the student giving it. The lesson then proceeds in the ordinary way for the allotted time (generally half an hour to 45 minutes), there being no interference of any kind with the student's method of giving it. The teacher does his or her best to teach, the boys or girls to learn, and the visitors from the Training College look on and take notes. In some instances printed forms are used as a guide to criticism with a number of heads and suggestions under heads, methodically arranged. These are carefully elaborated. At the Cambridge Day Training College, where criticism lessons are very ably conducted, the main heads are:—I. Aim of lesson; II. Criticism of matter; III. Outline of lesson as given; IV. Criticism of Method; V. Teacher and class; VI. Total result. The suggestions for detailed criticism are very numerous especially under IV and V. Another such scheme gives five main heads and a summary.—i. Aim; ii. Lesson as conceived; iii. Lesson as given; iv. Teacher; v. Class. There are nineteen sub-headings, including Chief Merit and Chief Fault. These schemes are full of useful suggestions and indicate very fairly

the character and range of the subsequent discussions, which, where these forms are used, follow the lines laid down. Such schemes ensure thoroughness; but they also limit freedom and tend, perhaps, to give too uniform a character to the discussion, and some of those experienced in training reject them on these grounds. At Leeds forms are used and put to another purpose; the material they supply when filled in is worked up by the students in essay form, and these essays are overlooked by the professor and his assistants. At Cambridge also the forms are looked over by the training staff, but in this case they are handed in at once without revision.

(*b*) *The Discussion.*—The discussion itself for which the lesson provides the material takes place sometimes at once on the conclusion of the lesson, sometimes after an interval, generally in this case next day (as at Manchester, Bangor, the Maria Grey College, and Datchelor College). Whether a printed form has been used or not, some recognized order of procedure is usually followed in the discussion. At Manchester the Seminar meeting is much more than a mere criticism of the particular lesson. It is an exposition and discussion of a lesson in relation to the syllabus of which it forms part, the principles which underlie the teaching of that subject (or 'branch'), and the methods which were or should have been followed in the actual conduct of the lesson. The procedure observed is that an account of the lesson is first called for from the student or demonstrator who gave it, preceded, if the occasion requires it, by a review of a scheme of work in the subject and of the ground covered in previous lessons. The scheme of work and the principles involved in its arrangement are open to discussion. The account of the lesson involves a certain amount of self-criticism; the teacher states his aim, the carrying out of his aim and his own estimate of his success. Special criticisms follow under the heads:—A. Material; B. Method; C. The Class Teaching; D. Individuals in the class,—and the discussion becomes general. The member of the staff presiding (usually Professor Findlay himself) sums up authoritatively on most of the points raised. The discussion at Manchester is at once philosophical and intensely practical. At the Maria Grey

Training College, the conduct of the criticism lesson which has long been an established institution there, presents some special features of interest. These cannot be better described than by quotation from the account of the college authoritatively published, which will at the same time serve as a particular illustration of the aims and methods of the criticism lesson. "Once a week two students are appointed to give criticism lessons, in the presence of the principal, staff, and students, and sometimes of an outside critic. The students select the form they wish to teach, and choose their subjects either from the courses of lessons being given in the school, or from those they are giving themselves. If they prefer it, they can make up short courses among themselves or select a subject independent of school work. Two other students are appointed on the day of the lessons, one to take note of the number of questions put to each child, and one to prepare a criticism on the lesson. Next day the college assembles and the students who have given the lessons are called upon to give their own opinions as to the success of their lessons, and to defend themselves upon any points they think likely to raise discussion. The record of questions is taken and the students' criticism heard, after which there is a general debate, special points of interest being brought forward by the principal, lecturers and students. This plan has been found very helpful in promoting free discussion, in developing self-control, and in preparing students for the ordeal of giving lessons before an Examiner. It is also of great value in training the judgment of those who hear the lesson given, and in helping them to concentrate their attention on a variety of educational problems." At the London Day Training College and at Oxford the discussion is less methodized, less formal. In the Oxford training course and also at Cherwell Hall students make their criticism as called upon by the officer presiding. At Cherwell Hall the lines followed are (1) the Lesson; (2) the Teacher's manner; (3) the Results. At St. Mary's Hall, Liverpool, the scheme followed was (1) Criticism of the notes of the lesson; (2) Criticism of the lesson as a whole; (3) Praise of good points: this last a very happy feature. Every sort of point, great and small,

with which teaching is concerned can be brought into these discussions from the broadest questions of principle to the minutest details of treatment and manner; the special method of the subject (geography, literature, a modern language), the suitability of the lesson to the class, the use of questions, the mode of framing a question, the lawfulness of a colloquial expression, the teacher's intonation or attitude, the difficulty being to prevent the discussion ranging too widely or degenerating into a wrangle over trivialities. The general level of the discussions I have listened to was fair, in some cases good: at Cambridge and Oxford, as might perhaps be expected from the comparative maturity of the students (in age or culture or both), discussion was more firmly maintained, and criticism shewed greater independence of thought.

Results of the Training Course for the Students.

What then, it may be asked, are the student's actual gains, and what may he be expected to carry away from his year of training? His gains may be brought under three main heads. First, he should have acquired no mean sum of technical skill. He is no longer quite a beginner. He has taught classes regularly for the greater part of a year under conditions most favourable to success, ample time for preparation and the advice and assistance of teachers more experienced than himself. He should have made a thorough study of the method of teaching his own subject and have learnt something of the principles underlying all methods of teaching. He should boast a familiar acquaintance with the 'five formal steps' and be on speaking terms with the great doctrine of 'Apperception.' He will have been introduced to, he may even have mastered other kinds of teaching devices and helps to teaching; the use of maps and pictures; the value of a blackboard; right and wrong kinds of questions; the importance of voice, attitude, position; the principles of efficient class management; the art of maintaining discipline. Secondly, he will have attained a variety of knowledge bearing on his work as a teacher, psychology, hygiene, the theory of school organization, types of schools, the systems of education at large, some perception, perhaps, of the scale and significance of national problems of education, some insight into the organization of education in his own country, even some acquaintance also

with the systems of education in other countries. But thirdly, beyond and above all this, he will have attained a new attitude and point of view in regard to education, and to his own work in life as a schoolmaster or teacher: an attitude of mind and point of view which altogether transform his conceptions of teaching as a profession, and make impossible the view of schoolmastering as something to which any man of tolerable education can turn his hand for a time, which can be taken up as a makeshift for a living till some more congenial career opens—views which have prevailed and still prevail alike in England and in India, but thanks to the efforts of the builders up of the science of education with diminishing frequency. The point of view is that from which teaching is recognized as a highly skilled art or craft dealing with material the subtlest, the most difficult, the most valuable in the world—young human intelligence and will; and depending upon assured principles drawn from wide experience and reasoned reflection upon experience. Every problem of the class-room and of the wider school-life without, thus viewed, is a scientific problem to be worked out, and only to be worked out, under the guidance of scientific principles. Above all he has been taught from this point of view that the most important object of his consideration as a teacher is the boys whom he has to teach. They are the material, with which his science deals, on which his trained skill as a teacher is to be exercised more truly than on the instruction which he imparts. They are to be shaped to noble ends; all the resources of his art, all the personal gifts and capacities which he can bring to it, are to be concentred on these ends. The subjects he teaches, rules of discipline, punishments and prizes, marks and examinations, all the customs and traditions, the rules and ordinances of the school are only means. So he must understand boys; their modes of thinking and feeling, their natural interests and aversions; the ways in which they learn; the difference between boys' minds and men's. This is why he has studied psychology, and unless his study has been directed along these practical lines, it will be of little use to him. The students of training will have thought seriously about these ends: why we educate at

all; what we are trying to do in educating; in what degrees and manners various subjects conduce to the main end; why we choose one rather than another; and how the school course can be modified and adapted to individual needs. He will have glanced clear-sightedly over the later requirements and ultimate purposes of life, and have formed his own conclusions as to the part to be played by literary influences, by science, by the fine arts, by physical exercise, by direct moral and religious instruction in the formation of a boy's tastes and character. He will probably have come to the conclusion that the formation of character is the main end, and that character is of all things the most difficult to form. Therefore the organization and government of the school is a matter of even more vital importance than the choice of subjects and methods of teaching. The school must have a healthy corporate life in order that wholesome social influences may play upon the boy's character and mould him in surer and more organic ways than rules and precepts. He will have come to recognize consciously the supreme importance of this point of view; the difficulty of the practical problems it involves; the necessity of solving them rightly. The attitude of mind is a spirit of respect and fear in presence of these problems; of willingness to study and learn; of firm conviction of the greatness of the teacher's work; of steadfast purpose to do the work strenuously and faithfully. In a word the results should be an ampler conception of the teacher's work, a higher ideal of his duty.

Thus conceived the gains of training will appear not so much in some brief immediate advantage enjoyed by the young master who has been through a training course, because he already knows something of his work, though even these are substantial; but far rather in the potential capacity he brings with him to use the experiences which the years of teaching will bring to wider purposes and to higher ends.

This is not a fancy picture. These results naturally flow from the plans actually schemed out for the work of the training course and the work which I have actually seen in progress in training institutions. The testimony of one who had "taken the Oxford course of training in his mature age"

and "received the diploma of the Oxford University with distinction" as quoted by Mr. Arthur Sidgwick at the Conference on the Training of Teachers in secondary schools for boys held at Cambridge in November 1902, may fitly be added in confirmation. "I had had every advantage before taking the Oxford course. I was under an Oxford man as a boy, I had seen the inside of three of the best schools as an assistant master, and I had been for about ten years a life-member of the Teachers' Guild, and a diligent reader of the *Journal of Education* and other educational books, and I have had some ten years' experience as headmaster. This, some would think, might suffice. I can only say that I would not have missed the course for anything. It widened enormously one's view of matters educational, it deepened one's sense of responsibility, and, above all, it taught one to try to regard things from the point of view of the child, and not merely from the examinational point of view."

The advantages for the school and for the boys or girls in the school are obviously reciprocal. They also extend indefinitely out beyond; because every teacher so trained influences the sum of educated opinion, and the effects of the "training of teachers" are not to be measured solely by the teachers trained. As the most pagan in spirit among us benefit by being born into an atmosphere of Christian ethics, and have even our anti-Christian ethics moulded by it, so are teachers now initiated in an atmosphere of training. The ideas and spirit of training, which are the ideas and spirit of the science of education, have gone out widely into the world of schools, and prevail even where their efficacy is most called in question.

Looking to organization and opportunity, the impressions derived from my study of secondary training in the months from October 1906 to March 1907 are such as I have described favourable as to the present and for the future hopeful. Unfortunately there is another side to be considered and the net result is less satisfactory.

Numbers under training.

The number of students at the nine women's training colleges and departments was not far short of 200. At the thirteen university training departments (including King's

College) the number was just over 100, and of this 100, over 60 were women. The number of men who were being trained was 37. Leaving out the department at Bristol which trains women only, this gives an average of three students to an institution. The only places where men were being trained in appreciable numbers (October 1906) were Manchester, Cambridge, and Oxford; at Manchester, 5; at Cambridge, 10; at Oxford, 12. Elsewhere the numbers were three or two or one, or none. "It is true," says Professor Adamson of King's College, writing in 1904, "that a somewhat considerable 'plant' exists for the purpose of training, and a great deal is said about the necessity of employing it; but whatever the body of conviction as to the value of training, or of prejudice against it, of the thing itself there is but little." This pronouncement is certainly borne out by the figures in the case of men.

Nor is this the worst. The only purely secondary training course which has drawn in men, and the sort of men most needed, in numbers at all commensurate with the needs of the profession, if training is to become general, is the Oxford course. In eight years from 1899 to October of last year upwards of 300 men had taken the Oxford course, a majority of them men from the public schools, Winchester, Eton, and other leading schools being represented. To have made training effective to this extent was a very notable success. In 1905 the total of men students was 54. The report for 1906 gives 46 for the year under review. When I visited Oxford in October there were only twelve men working with Mr. Keatinge. In March there were about half-a-dozen. In the summer term there were three. To understand this extraordinary fall in numbers, one must look to the fortunes of the Teachers' Register.

The Teachers' Register.

My study of secondary training has chanced to coincide with a crisis in the history of the movement. In 1902 by an order in Council dated March 6th, and in fulfilment of one of the provisions of a section of the Board of Education Act of 1899, an authoritative Register of Teachers was for the first time instituted in England. The regulations then framed provide for the registration of teachers in two columns:

column A for all certificated elementary teachers; column B for secondary teachers. Whatever may be the merits or defects of the Register of Teachers with two columns so established, the mere fact of the establishment of a register was regarded by the advocates of training as a signal achievement on behalf of the cause of training, because training was authoritatively recognised as a normal condition of registration. How precisely it was viewed is easily seen from what was said and written at the time. In his inaugural address at the opening of the London Day Training College in October 1902, Professor Adams spoke as follows:—"For secondary teachers 'training' is no longer something in the air. On the 6th March of this year of grace was issued an order in Council providing for the formation and keeping of a register of teachers. To obtain a place among the secondary teachers in column B of this register, a candidate must not only possess a degree or some equivalent evidence of mere knowledge, pass an approved examination in the theory of teaching and produce evidence of ability to teach, but must also have either resided and undergone a course of training for at least one year at a recognized university or training college, or have spent at least one year as a student-teacher *under supervision* at a recognized school (not being an elementary school)." A similar conviction is expressed by Canon Lyttelton, now Head-master of Eton College, then Head-master of Haileybury, in an address at Birmingham: "In giving directions for a Registration of teachers to be made, the Board of Education have accepted the position that every future teacher after a certain date will have to prove that he has submitted to a course of professional education. The thing is upon us, whether we believe in it or not . . . ." Professor Findlay also (at the time Head-master of the Intermediate School, Cardiff) remarks in the preface to the 1st edition of his "Principles of Class Teaching": "This genuine interest in professional pursuits is now to be stimulated by the recent order in Privy Council, requiring that teachers shall study education before being recognized on the professional Register." And Mr. Graham Balfour in his review of "The Educational Systems of Great Britain and Ireland" (1903) after sketching

the slow advance of the movement for the training of secondary teachers writes: "The whole aspect of the question has, however, been transformed by the establishment in 1902 of the Board of Education Register of Teachers, which will in future require training as a necessary condition for registration." At the end of 1905 there were 10,459 names in column B of this register. Early in 1906 it was made known "that it was the intention of the Government to insert a clause in the forthcoming Education Bill, which would bring the present Register to an end." This was the situation when I began my study of training, and as soon as I got into touch with the universities and training colleges, the effects of the intended abolition of the register forced themselves upon my attention. There was a decided check. This result was not apparent everywhere, but it was frequent and in some cases marked. I find that in all nine institutions were affected more or less seriously. Next to Oxford the most considerable fall in numbers has been at the Cambridge Women's College from 50 (June 1906) to 29 (June 1907). In other cases there was a drop from 12 to 5, from 16 to 9, from 15 to 10. An effect not less unfortunate has shown itself at Cheltenham, a lowering of the standard of general education among the students of the training department, because the minimum qualification for the Cambridge Teachers' Certificate is less than that required for inclusion in column B of the register.

To appreciate the significance for training of the making and unmaking of the register, it must be realized that in the history of the movement in favour of training the two questions have long been bound together. A register of teachers is in origin and intent a device to assure the professional status of the teacher by requiring conditions of enrolment on the analogy of registration in the medical profession. These conditions naturally, almost necessarily, include professional qualifications and therefore special professional training. Hence the interest in registration of those whose faith it is that the teacher's work demands special study and preparation. The actual movement for registration took its start from the College of Preceptors as early as 1860. As a sequel to the report of the Schools Enquiry Commission of 1867, a

Registration Bill was introduced into Parliament in 1869 along with the Endowed Schools Act. A Scholastic Registration Association was formed in 1871; and in 1877 was founded the Teachers' Training and Registration Society, which has as its main object the training of women for secondary schools and kindergartens. It was this latter society which in 1878 opened the first training college for secondary teachers at Bishopsgate (now grown into the Maria Grey College and transplanted to Brondesbury). Any study of the progress of the movement since then must show how closely the two objects have been associated. Registration Bills were brought into Parliament in 1879, in 1881, in 1890 (two), in 1893 (two), in 1896, and in 1898. In 1891 a Select Committee of the House of Commons reported in favour of the registration of teachers in secondary schools as "in principle desirable." Registration for secondary teachers was strongly advocated (among others by Sir Richard Temple) in a Conference on Secondary Education held at Oxford in 1893. In 1895 the Royal Commission on Secondary Education which began its sittings in April 1894 reported in favour of a register of teachers. In 1896 a Conference on Secondary Education held at Cambridge passed by 107 votes to 7 a resolution to the effect that "legislation for the formation of an authoritative Register of persons qualified to teach in secondary schools is of urgent importance." In 1899 the Board of Education Act gave the necessary powers and at last in 1902 the register came into being. It may be noted that registration was originally advocated in the interests of secondary teaching and, by some at least, as an inducement to training (the primary teacher is to all intents and purposes registered when he becomes a certificated teacher and his training is provided by the State): that some of the earlier Bills (*e.g.*, those of 1878 and 1881) asked only for a standard of general education as the condition of registration, but that the reports of the Select Committee of 1891, and of the Commission of 1894 and 1895 were for a qualification involving special training as well as general education: that the Commission of 1894 and 1895 proposed one register, admission to which "should be offered on the same terms to all teachers, and which should

be so constituted as to include all that is most worthy of recognition in the whole profession:" that the register established in 1902 provided two columns, one for elementary, the other (practically) for secondary teachers. The two columns are the rocks on which the barque registration has miscarried.

The reasons which induced the Board of Education to bring about the annulment of the register by a clause in the Education Bill of 1906 repealing the section of the Act of 1899 "which is the origin and continuing cause of the register" are set forth in a memorandum "on the Registration of Teachers and the Abolition of the Register" published last year. A consideration of the validity of these reasons does not come within the scope of this report, which must confine itself to noting this critical incident in the history of training, and tracing its consequences so far as they affect the subject of study. What these have been is succinctly expressed in the report of the Board of Education for last year (1905-1906).

"The immediate result, however, of the Board's announcement was a widespread feeling of regret and disappointment, which found its expression in memorials to the Board from many of the societies and associations into which the teaching profession is organized. There appears to be complete unity of sentiment as to the desirability of a register of teachers, but no unanimity as to the form it should take."

The Education Bill of 1906 was itself destined to perish before it came to the birth and the formal abolition of the register remains unaccomplished. The register with its 11,566 names (representing 11,566 guineas) remains in a state of suspended animation, stricken with a mortal hurt, but not dead. The position finally reached (July 1907) may be gathered from two quotations, one a continuation of the passage already quoted from the Board's report: "In these circumstances the Board promised to maintain an open mind, and an assurance was given 'that should any scheme be proposed which could be beneficial and practicable and satisfactory to the teaching profession as a whole, the Board would do their best to carry it out.' There is reason to believe that it may be found possible hereafter to establish a new registration council representing all branches of the teaching pro-

fession, and that such a council may succeed in establishing a new register of teachers upon such conditions of minimum qualifications for admission as would find general acceptance among teachers." The other is from the report of the Teachers' Registration Council, also for 1906. "The subsequent acceptance by the Government of Lord Monkswell's Amendment* to the registration clause of the Bill may be taken as indicating a policy with which the Board feel able to concur, and the Council desire to embrace this opportunity of expressing their hope that the withdrawal of the Bill will not prevent the establishment of the scheme foreshadowed in the amendment, with the cardinal features of which the Council are entirely in agreement." (Report, p. 7).

I have given this much space to the incident of the Register because these occurrences last year mark a real turning-point in the history of secondary training and any adequate comprehension of the present situation is impossible without it. Up to March 1906, though the goal, the training of all teachers, was still far distant, advance had been steady and continuous. The abolition of the register within five years of its institution is a distinct set-back. Whether the check will be followed by decline, or will lead rather to a new and stronger impetus, through the adoption of new and more effective measures, remains to be seen.†

Board of Education proposals.

The Memorandum of the Board of Education which announced the abolition of the register, expressed the belief "that suitable alterations in their own regulations, and in schemes for secondary schools would do as much to encourage the training of teachers for secondary schools in the absence of a register, as would be the case were any practicable scheme for registration superadded." [P. 7 (IV)]. The changes here spoken of are announced in a Supplementary Note dated June 8th. (1) There is to be a list issued periodically of secondary schools "recognized" as "efficient." (2) After July 31st, 1907, it will be required that for this

* Afterwards included in the Education (Administrative Provisions) Bill of 1907. A clause in this Bill provides for the reconstitution of the Teachers' Register.

† Meanwhile in this same year 1906 the Scotch Board of Education set in operation a scheme providing for the suitable training of all teachers in Scotch schools, secondary and primary alike.

testimony to efficiency a certain proportion of those who in the future are appointed to teach in these schools must have been adequately trained. (3) There is to be a new system of grants-in-aid of secondary training. The second provision, if rigorously applied, should certainly have appreciable influence as an incentive to training. A good deal depends on the "proportion" that must be trained. It is not clear that this influence will touch the older public schools which are independent of the Board's authority.

The student-teacher system.

An account of secondary training at the present time in England is incomplete without some reference to an alternative system of training sanctioned by the regulations for the register, though as yet not extensively adopted, systematic training at a school instead of at an institution specially and solely organized for training purposes. This system was discussed with much fulness at the Conference on the Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools held at Cambridge in November 1902 and though weighty objections were urged by more than one speaker, it was favourably received and strongly supported. The ideas behind this system are, firstly, that there is no place where a schoolmaster can so efficaciously learn his work as at a good school in ordinary working, and no persons so competent to give him the right sort of training as practical schoolmasters of experience. Secondly, that it is more attractive to the men intending to be schoolmasters, and on the whole more feasible, considering the numbers to be trained and the difficulty of time and expense. This system contrasts with the systems both of the training college and of the university department. The student studies the business of school-mastering at the school under supervision as a sort of apprentice. He is, of course, under the authority of the headmaster, but he may work more specially under the guidance of one of the other masters who has the experience most likely to be useful to him. It has also been suggested that a Master of Method should be invited to visit the school and overlook the work of the student-teacher; or again that one of the senior masters should be made Master of Method (this last is a practice that has prevailed in the educational institutions of the Jesuits for 300 years). Under this

guidance the student teaches some few hours a week; but most of his time is given to the general study of education (presumably with a view to some examination in theory), and observation of the general working of the school. It is at once obvious that this system has the great advantage already noticed in respect of the training departments which are adjuncts to large girls' schools—that of intimate association with school life. On the other hand, there is nothing to correspond with the training on the theoretic side given at a university or training college, which should be complementary to school practice. Accordingly a modification of the system has been proposed, which seeks to combine both advantages—a year's training divided between the school and the training institution. The division which found most favour at the conference at Cambridge already referred to was one term at a recognized school, to be followed by two terms at a university training department. I am not aware that this exact experiment has been actually tried as yet. There is a close approximation to it at Oxford—four weeks (or more) at an approved school, two or three terms at the university—also at Cambridge and Manchester. The system now being tried in connection with the London Day Training College is another modification. Opinion at the Board of Education is tending to favour this student-teachership system as against the more special academic training of the training college. Two points of great interest may be noticed. The student-teacher system is practically what in germ we have had all along from the beginning at the English public schools; and this helps to account for the real excellence which has made the fame of the English "public school system." Such training has been wholly unmethodical; but "training" there has been, and in two ways. A young master has usually, if he has sought it, been able to find advice and assistance from older members of the school staff. In a deeper and ampler sense there has been training from the habits and traditions of the school itself: these the newly appointed assistant (and the newly appointed head-master no less) has sucked in at every pore, apart from the fact, that he brought the spirit of these with him if, as he generally has been, he was

a "public school man" himself. "Much that is best in English secondary education," said Mr. Sadler, speaking at the Cambridge Conference of 1902, "is a personal tradition, clinging to certain places and closely associated with actual practice in particular schools. It is to a singularly small extent expressed in formal treatises or even in letters or biographies; it comes out more in casual conversation, but far more in the actual doing of the thing itself—in a particular atmosphere." New conditions to-day demand a more systematized and methodical training, but it is unphilosophical to ignore the good that is and has been, because times alter. It is even advisable to take extreme care that in aiming at the new good which systematic training promises, we do not let slip the old good of spirit and tradition.

In order to introduce more stringency into the method of training at schools, the revised regulations for registration define the conditions of student-teachership carefully, and lay down as requirements for his training at the school "(*a*) Adequate opportunity for the study, under supervision, of the theory of education, including the principles of teaching, discipline and school management; (*b*) sufficient practice, under supervision, in the actual work of managing school classes, and in the application of theory to practice." It is certainly worth considering whether certain schools in England and elsewhere could not give this methodical training, though there are strong reasons, to me it seems preponderant reasons, for a training in the more academic atmosphere of the university department.

The Gymnasial Seminar.

The other point is, that the student-teacher system is in essence precisely that fine flower of German educational methods, the Prussian 'Gymnasial Seminar.'

As far as I have been able to ascertain the only country in Europe which has an organization for the training of secondary teachers at all comparable in completeness with that now existing in England is Prussia; classing with Prussia such other German States as have adopted the Prussian system. It is therefore a keen regret to me that my study of training in the United Kingdom has not been fortified by some first-hand acquaintance with secondary training in Germany. This re-

gret is lessened by the fulness of the available sources for information on the German system; Professor Findlay's admirably complete and lucid memorandum in Volume V of the Report of the Royal Commission of 1894; a full and appreciative account of the "Training of Secondary Teachers in Germany" in Chapter XXII of the Report of a Commission from New South Wales 'mainly on Secondary Education,' dated ten years later; and authoritative information, in Morsch's 'Das Höhere Lehramt in Deutschland und Oesterreich'. Moreover one may make a highly instructive survey of the German system and a series of visits to seminars in working, very satisfactorily, without crossing seas, by help of the vivid record of his experiences published in 1903 by M. Charles Chabot, Professor of Education in the University of Lyons. This Prussian system, which has been adopted wholly or approximately, in some other parts of Germany is *in essence* precisely the student-teacher system contemplated by the Registration Council, but the student-teacher system fully methodized on a definite model.* The system is that candidates for appointment in secondary schools are attached in batches of some half dozen to certain schools of the highest class (Gymnasia) especially selected for their fitness for the purpose, which schools thereupon become gymnasial seminars. As M. Chabot expresses it "a gymnasial seminar is not a special institution, a secondary normal school with or without a school attached to it; it is a special adjunct to a Gymnasium which can be detached from year to year, because it is entrusted to a Director in whom the necessary ability, zeal and capacity for work are thought to be discerned and from whom the office is withdrawn, if it appears beyond his energies or deserts."

The actual course of training at the Persian seminar is on lines corresponding closely to those described at large in case of English institutions, which indeed have borrowed from it, or from the same sources, except that—and this is a cardinal difference—private study takes the place of lectures.

* Compare, however, the Report of the Commission of 1894, volume I, page 204. "This is not so much the development of the probation of apprenticeship system as the addition to it of something like the College for Teachers.

There are criticism lessons, model lessons, study of school organization in all its details, observation and the practice of teaching. The criticism lesson plays an equally leading part; is, in fact, the seminar in the more special sense. I cannot do better than again borrow from M. Chabot: "The candidates are gathered in groups of from four to six; and each group passes a year in one of these specially appointed Gymnasia. They listen to and they read papers on pedagogy, reviews of books or articles on questions of teaching and education. They have at their disposal a special library, which contains the books necessary for the study of these questions. At the end of the year they must hand in a dissertation on a pedagogic subject, prescribed or approved by the director. It is thus a year of specifically pedagogic studies. So much for the work in theory. On the other hand, by way of practice, in accordance with a plan of studies fixed by the director, they attend lessons of the school staff which serve as model lessons (Musterlektionen), and that in all branches of instruction; they give practice-lessons themselves (Probelektionen) which are listened to and afterwards criticised by their comrades, by the professor of the class, by the director and his 'assistant.' They are also occasionally required to take the place of professors absent or ill, and are in this capacity admitted to meetings of the school staff. Finally, they must take as much part as possible in the life of the school, follow the boys' recreations, gymnastic exercises, walks and school excursions. A 'seminar' meeting is held at least once a week, usually after a practice lesson. The director presides; all the candidates are bound to come to it, unless any one of them is kept away by work as substitute for one of the staff. Other professors can attend, in particular those of the classes in which the lessons were given. The meeting is occupied with reviews of books or articles, by reports and discussions, by lessons in pedagogy, above all by criticism. The reports of the meetings, kept in turn by the candidates, are collected in book form. In Prussia these minute books are sent at the end of the year to the provincial inspector (provincial-schulrat) who has them circulated from seminary to seminary, in order that each may profit by the work of the rest, no doubt also with a view to

the stimulus to sustained keenness supplied by the prospect of this exchange."

This system was officially introduced in 1890 'after long study and discussion,' as a more thorough means of training than that previously afforded by the year of probation. The year of probation (probejahr) is retained, the year of formal training (seminar-jahr) preceding it, making two years of apprenticeship in all. The two years are found in practice a severe demand on the time and resources of intending teachers, and there is some probability that the year of probation will be given up.

Special points worth noting are the dissertation that each candidate must write on an educational subject during his year of training. This ensures a serious study of theory and is in the nature of research. Another is that candidates hear and follow lessons in *all* subjects, not only in the one or more which they will themselves profess. To quote M. Chabot once more—"Here is, I say again, one of the most characteristic features of the seminars, and one which makes the most vivid impression on a Frenchman: that before entering on his function each young professor learns not only his own special function in practice, but knows theoretically and from example that of the others. If he is on the scientific side, he knows what is taught in grammar or in history; if on the literary what is taught in physics, or in natural science, and how. So it is almost certain that the professors will not remain strangers to each other, nor to the general interest in which the rights of each special form of instruction ought to be reconciled by reciprocal concessions." A little earlier he writes in this connection of a discussion on the teaching of history. "It was not less instructive to see future professors of science listening with sustained attention to instruction in a form of teaching so different from their own special subject. They did not seem, any more than in the hour with the class in French, to have any idea that this did not concern them. They seemed, on the contrary, to think that nothing is alien to themselves which touches the school, and that a scientist ought to know what are the literary studies going on side by side with his own."

The high pitch of excellence which Prussian secondary education has attained is proof of the practical efficacy of the Prussian system, but it has one serious weakness inherent in it: it requires almost superhuman powers in the man who is at the same time to manage a large school and to be responsible for the training of five or six young teachers. As a very competent critic said to M. Chabot "in point of fact, the directors of the gymnasia have not enough time, and in most cases not enough knowledge of the science of education to direct a seminar as well as the school. It is a heavy responsibility to make a mere addition or adjunct of, as if it were not bound to be enough in itself to fill a man's whole time; all that is done is to lighten the work of the Director by three hours of teaching, and this the Directors do not in all cases give up. Similarly in case of the professors who are appointed as assistants. Besides, neither the one, nor the other, has, in general, the knowledge of the science of education that is wanted. They have recollections only, more or less vague; they take a manual and cut it up for their lessons." I have also gathered incidentally that the necessity of filling vacancies leads not infrequently to the shortening or omission of the seminar year. These qualifications make me think that in the Prussian Gymnasial Seminar we have a practical system of great efficacy at its best, but not the ultimate ideal for secondary training.

III.—SOME SPECIAL POINTS OF ENQUIRY.

It has been impossible to carry through my study of secondary training, even with an aim set beyond the gates of the East, without being caught by the direct fascination of present educational problems in England. One cannot fail to see that here, too, in England the main interest of the time is the problem of secondary schools (*vide* Mr. A. C. Benson, Sir Oliver Lodge, Kappa, and the Reports of the Board of Education). Classical education must undergo a transformation and the old form of it will cease to be the only standard. The vital problem of the hour is to work out a type of education which shall be truly liberal and of the highest humanistic

value, yet founded on modern, not on ancient, languages and literatures. We want classical education without either Latin or Greek. To those who familiarly teach English as classical literature in India, the problem will not appear insoluble. It is possible even to be a loyal believer in the old classical type as best and yet to acknowledge the possibility of and justification for a new.

But while it is true that I have been led by their intrinsic interest to study these questions in England in and for themselves, I have never wholly lost sight of the applications to India which were the ulterior object of investigation. Accordingly I have given special attention, wherever I have had opportunity, to the following points:—

(1) Can the special professional training of the teacher be carried on with advantage along with his general education, that is, his study for a degree or other examination? Or is it right to insist that the professional training should be distinct from the general, and, in ordinary cases, later?

(2) Should there be a separate and special course of training for teachers in secondary schools, or is one form of training suitable to both primary and secondary teachers?

(3) What are the advantages of a school specially associated with a training college or department (a special demonstration or practising school), as compared with ordinary schools, made available for practice-teaching by arrangement?

(4) What is the right relation of the theoretical to the practical side of training? Can either be said to be of greater importance? Or of value separately?

(5) What is the most suitable length of the training course?

(6) What amount of practice in actual school work is to be considered necessary?

(7) What is the real usefulness of the criticism lesson? What should be its guiding aim?

(8) Is it desirable that secondary teachers, like primary, should be trained in special resident colleges? and lastly,

(9) Is it possible to test decisively the value of training? Can the superiority of the trained to the untrained teacher be proved?

It will be to the purpose, I think, to state summarily the conclusions I reached on each of these heads:—

1. There is a general agreement among Professors of Education and others engaged with training that general and professional education (study for a degree and training in the science and art of education) should be made separate, and this in face of the fact that at the day training colleges, where intending elementary teachers are working for a university degree and at all the normal colleges in the kingdom the principle is being deliberately contravened. Ideally, all say, the two should be kept distinct: the exigencies of circumstance make it sometimes necessary to combine them. As to elementary training, the resident colleges were definitely founded in order to give a better general education to teachers in default of a suitable school education; the university day training colleges, on the other hand, are forced to allow the combination because the students are all in receipt of stipends as King's Scholars and the government provision for King's Scholars is for three years only. As the degree course is three years and there is no provision for a fourth year, the professional training has somehow to be compressed into the three years along with study for the degree. In the case of secondary training, however, the principle of separation is everywhere strictly upheld. The training course is always, in intention at least, post-graduate.

2. It is held generally that for secondary teachers a special course of training is required, differing in assignable respects from the training of primary teachers. Some would have the training wholly separate; others think that part of the theoretic training of primary and secondary teachers can with advantage be carried on together. There is complete unanimity that some part, if not all, of the practical training must be in a secondary school. The strongest opinion against common

training was Professor Adamson's (King's College). He holds definitely that secondary training cannot usefully be combined with primary. Up to a certain point, of course, methods and principles are common, but not very far. Broadly speaking aims as well as methods are different in the secondary and in the elementary school. The whole question is conditioned by the fact that Primary education is to stop at the age of thirteen, whereas Secondary goes on to eighteen or nineteen. On the other hand, at Cambridge, Manchester, Leeds and elsewhere primary and secondary students are to some extent trained together, and some of those most experienced in training hold there is positive advantage in this association. The requirement that practice shall be, in great part at any rate, in a secondary school necessitates in any case some difference. Some contend, as does Professor Findlay in the "University Review" for November 1906, that the training of secondary and elementary teachers at the universities should be combined to the utmost possible extent. But this is not saying that the difference in the two kinds of training can be disregarded altogether.

3. The value of a school specially attached to the training institution and under the direct control of the training staff is very generally recognized, though not quite unanimously. The estimate of this value varies in emphasis: some regard such a school as useful and convenient only; in the view of others it is of the first importance and the indispensable basis of a satisfactory organization for training. Approval is in most cases joined with the pendent that practice is required at other schools as well. We have seen how the women's training colleges usually have such a school, and the university training departments have not. It might be expected that opinion would follow the division. This is not, however, altogether the case. The heads of training colleges and departments who have such a school at their disposal show a high appreciation of the advantages it affords; but they commonly insist on the advantage of using outside schools also. Those who have not a school usually make it clear that they would have one, if they could; it is the means that are lacking, not the will. For instance, Professor Welton (Leeds) says that ideally there

should be a demonstration school attached to the university which trains teachers. Practically under present conditions the expense is prohibitive. The expense must be great, because there ought to be a very strong staff. Professor Green at Sheffield said the same. Dr. Lloyd Morgan (Bristol) and Professor Adamson (King's College) express their sense of the importance of such a school as an essential part of the organization for training in specially strong terms. At Manchester the Fielden Demonstration School is concrete evidence of Professor Findlay's firm conviction of the usefulness and value to a University Training Department of the associated school. In some important instances the need is not admitted so definitely, but on the whole it appears to me reasonable to conclude that a demonstration school is a proper part of any completely efficient organization for training. And I share the view of Professor Adamson and others that by this school should be understood a thoroughly equipped and strongly staffed school in full regular work.

4. That theory is only valuable in relation to practice and that practice is of most service in close connection with theory is the universal opinion, and there is a general consensus among those engaged in training that the theoretical and practical sides of training should be carried on together. The manifold difficulties of the organization of practice make it tempting to believe that a period of time specially devoted to the study of educational literature and the history of educational ideas could be productive of nothing but good to one whose life work was to be education, even if unaccompanied by prentice attempts at teaching in a practising school or schools. This is my own opinion; but at all events it gets little support among those engaged in training at the universities I have visited. The tendency is wholly the other way: to lay the greater stress on actual practice, though this does not, it must be remembered, mean practice divorced from theory. Thus, Professor Findlay definitely holds that practice is the main thing. Of the two he affirms, without hesitation, the practical side is the more important, though theory is also required to suggest ideas and set up ideals. There is pronounced insistence on the practical side by Mr. Keatinge,

Reader in Education at Oxford. Professor Green (Sheffield) considers that for men with a university training, a theoretical course would have a certain value alone; but he adds that of course practice is desirable before a diploma is given. Professor Welton emphasizes the high value of the philosophic or theoretical side of training; but he understands this only of theoretic training closely united with practice. Practice is necessary, but the value of practice depends greatly on the attitude of mind; the right attitude of mind follows from having the right ideas, and this is the outcome of a wise study of the theory of education. He thinks that an exclusive study of theory might even do harm. The firmest advocacy of the claims of the theoretic side was Dr. Lloyd Morgan's. Dr. Lloyd Morgan dissents from the ordinary view that most of the time spent in training should be given to practice. In the practising school students, he points out, are merely doing what, if they become teachers, they will have to do all their lives. In University lecture-rooms they have an opportunity of being made familiar with ideas on education—an opportunity they will never have again in an equal degree. It is a chance that comes then only in their life experience. He therefore holds that the practical side of training is at present emphasized overmuch. That it is so arises from fear of criticism and too great haste to show results. These considerations appear to me to be just and present a side of the whole question which is being unduly overlooked: it was gratifying to hear it at least this once clearly and courageously expressed. But the balance of authority is decidedly on the other side, laying the chief stress on the necessity of practical training in the school. For us in India it is probably well that it should be so, and to conform a wholesome discipline. By more than one of those with whom I discussed the point a fear was expressed that ideas unballasted by the lessons of the rough experience of trying to turn ideas into action might actually do harm in India. Might not the result be the mere inflation of the teacher with high pretensions without any real increase of his effective value? This danger will certainly need to be guarded against, but at present the right ideas are too often wholly wanting and need to be disseminated; there can be no true practice without them.

Therefore, though in conclusion we must agree with the majority of those whose experience gives them the right to judge that there is no *training* of teachers without laborious practice we need not altogether leave out of account the real value and importance as part of that training of vital educational ideas.

5. There is very general agreement that a year's training is the shortest period likely to give (in ordinary cases) satisfactory results. A year's course is the period actually required at all the universities which grant a diploma for secondary teaching. In the case of Oxford there is a slight abatement of the full year in so far as a vacation course of six weeks is allowed to count as one of three terms required by the Regulations of the Oxford Delegacy for the training of teachers. The Reader in Education argues strongly in favour of this concession and the success of the Oxford course appears to justify it. But the circumstances are exceptional and it is not safe to accept any other standard than a full academic year. The academic year, it may be remembered, will always work out at something less than twelve months. Thus the course will ordinarily begin in October and the examination to which it leads be held in the following June.

6. The actual amount of teaching practice expedient and practicable in a year's training is, as has appeared above, a point most difficult to ascertain with assurance and precision. In point of fact it differs, as I have shown, from place to place, and at the same place in case of different students (see above pages 19 and 20). For actual teaching under supervision four lessons a week for thirty weeks of the year forms a reasonable standard; more is expedient, when practicable: for practical work in the wider sense three school mornings of three hours a week for the same period.

7. The criticism lesson, better named by Professor Findlay the 'open lesson,' regulates the whole machinery of training and is everywhere the leading feature of the course. I have met but one exception to this predominant influence of the criticism lesson and only two opinions adverse to it. It seems to me, however, just possible that this small dissentient minority is right, at least to this extent that the value of the

criticism lesson is over-estimated and that sometimes its use is misapplied.

That the criticism lesson judiciously handled is most useful and stimulating does not admit of question; what may reasonably be questioned is whether it is not possible to have too much criticism; whether the method does not inherently tend to over-elaboration; whether there is not constant danger of observance sinking to superstition. This is, perhaps, no more than saying that all methods, however good, are liable to abuse. It does, however, appear to me that at the present time training leans overmuch on the criticism lesson. The criticism lesson is a good servant, but a bad master. It is good to stimulate thought, to encourage discussion, to compel recognition of contrasting aspects of educational method. But after all the teaching is the main thing, not the criticism; our real aim is to reach settled principles of teaching, not make it appear that all is fluid and indeterminate. The seminar becomes a sort of debating-club, and like all debating clubs tends to lose itself in side issues, to spend its forces on the over-refinement of the minute. This is at all events a present danger, needing all the resources of a skilful president to hold in check. Moderation is needed in the use made of criticism, and this moderation will be specially necessary in Bengal.

It is not easy to arrive at a clear view of what should be the chief aim of the criticism lesson. Professor Findlay says it should be first and foremost the observation of the taught. Perhaps it ought to be this; and if this aim were carefully and strictly followed, a different complexion would be given to the estimate of value. The open lesson (with the criticism duly subordinated) certainly offers unique opportunities for the quiet observation of the class under instruction by the lookers-on, who according to the proverb have the best chance of seeing the game. But it is to be feared that the base necessity of 'criticism' obsesses the observing faculties of the average student and focusses attention on the teacher. It is therefore probable that the practice at Manchester is right; and herein may be seen the importance of a name. The term 'criticism lesson' insensibly predisposes the mind to a criti-

cal attitude, the criticism appears to be the main thing; whereas it should rather be the opportunities of observing and learning. It is the 'open,' not the 'criticism,' lesson which should be introduced in Bengal.

8. The trend of opinion is against special colleges for secondary training. In the United Kingdom there are no special secondary training colleges for men, if we except the Jesuit Seminary at Stonyhurst. There are several for women and some of the most effective training work is done in these. Nevertheless the present tendency towards the University type of training seems to be justified. Whenever I have put the question where men are being trained, the answer has invariably been that special colleges are not desirable in case of secondary teaching. Men training for a secondary diploma should be graduates of a university, the training course should be a postgraduate course; all who enter upon it should from the nature of the case have already had full experience of corporate life in a college. The reasons which make the resident college desirable for elementary teachers do not exist in their case. There is then no need of a special college for the training of secondary teachers; it is at best superfluous.

9. From the nature of the case it is extremely difficult to get any decisive test of the value of training, that is to say, a simple test that shall at once convince the sceptical. We cannot isolate our instances and show the difference between the teacher trained and the same teacher untrained. Much depends on the man himself, the school he works in, on circumstances and opportunities. Every case is conditioned in complex ways. The evidence available is cumulative and largely inferential. Perhaps the most valuable direct evidence is that of those who have passed through a course of training and who testify to the advantages they have drawn from it. This testimony has not in any case been wanting, when I have had the opportunity of enquiring; this has not, however, been my good fortune with any frequency. Next comes that of those who train; and here my opportunities have been more ample. I have talked with most of those who at the present time are at the head of training departments

and training colleges in England and Wales, and with many others besides who are engaged in the work of training; only one of all these admitted any doubt of the solid value of a course of training. It may be objected that such testimony is biassed, but I do not think the objection is warranted; the belief in the efficacy of training is firmly expressed and clearly genuine; the unanimity is itself significant. What I cannot help thinking the most important testimony of all, is, I must acknowledge, to a great extent wanting—practical support from the head-masters of the leading public schools. It is remarkable that a Headmasters' Conference made a formal representation to the universities in favour of training as early as 1872 and there have been similar resolutions since. Individual head-masters, and these not the least eminent, have been, and are, strong advocates of training. But the broad fact remains, and it would be idle to attempt to slur it over, that head-masters as a body are not convinced of the advantages of formal training. The test seems to me to be simple and decisive, as I had occasion to note at the outset of this report. If head-masters as a body were seriously persuaded of the advantages of training, the men's training departments would be filled with students and the question of the register would be found of very minor importance. The head-masters have almost absolute control of the situation. A decision of the Headmasters' Conference, ratified by collective action, would ensure that in a few years all candidates for masterships would have passed through a course of training. When the head-masters are convinced, the cause of training is at once and completely won. I know that there are qualifying circumstances, the scarcity at the present time of well qualified men who wish to be schoolmasters, the expense of training—which make this practical support difficult; but these difficulties would be overcome if there was a resolute conviction among head-masters of the necessity of training. That this conviction is not found remains a stumbling-block. But it is not decisive. Custom and tradition, one may even say prejudice, are powerful factors, and these have offered a solid opposition to such a change of opinion as would compel training. There is still, it must be confessed, a considerable body

of authoritative opinion unfavourable to training. Nevertheless, if we look back 30, or even 20 years the advance is most marked. Twenty years ago training was hardly so much as spoken of among university men, who were thinking of teaching as a profession. Now at all events the idea is brought prominently forward, and if a man becomes a schoolmaster without going through a course of training, it is not because no opportunity of being trained is open to him, still less because he has never heard of the possibility. Moreover, opinion in these islands is not the final court of appeal. We must take account also of what is thought and believed on the Continent of Europe and in America. The most authoritative opinion everywhere, in Great Britain, on the Continent of Europe and in America, is decidedly and decisively in favour of training for the secondary teacher as for the primary.

It is significant also that while those who believe in training openly profess the faith that is in them, those who oppose or doubt rarely venture on a formal exposition of their reasons. It may not unjustly be supposed that arguments which so court the shade are afraid of the light. Another significant fact is that many who are now firm believers in training have come over from the side of pronounced opposition. It was striking to hear this avowal from ladies now at the head of successful training institutions. The explanation offered is significant, too: when a training course for secondary teachers was first advocated, it was at first mainly those whose general education was comparatively defective who took it, because they hoped in this way to make up for a weakness of which they were themselves conscious. This brought discredit on training, because whatever training may do, it is not potent to turn an uneducated person into an educated, nor to make up for all deficiencies in natural aptitude.

What training may reasonably be expected to do has been aptly and authoritatively expressed once for all by the Commission which investigated the whole question in 1894-95. "In assessing the merit of teachers, training may be expected generally, as it has been proved in experience, to raise the individual at least 'a class:' the indifferent thereby become moderate, the moderate good, and the man who would profit

most is the man of greatest natural aptitude. And further, all not absolutely incapable of keeping order may learn much of the difficult art of discipline."* This pronouncement is based on the evidence laid before the Commission and carefully sifted.

The balance of testimony as to the results of training does then substantially confirm the conviction which is the outcome of the attempt to think out the question of training on general grounds. If we start clear of prepossessions and vested interests, the abstract reasons for the training of the teacher are irresistible. Granted that there are principles lying behind the art of education, a man who is to practise the art must manifestly be the better for having studied the principles. It will scarcely be still contended that people teach purely by the light of nature. Before he teaches any man must consider to some extent *how* he is going to teach; the only question is whether his preliminary consideration shall be superficial or thorough, methodical or unmethodical. Training is precisely a thorough and methodical consideration of the 'how' of teaching. And in the form which alone finds general approval, it is supported by sufficient actual practice in teaching to give reality to the principles, and this practice in teaching is watched and guided by men who combine large practical experience of the difficulties of teaching with a deep study of principles. It is made a vital point that the practice should be so directed "for no one who really understands the question will confound mere practice in teaching with systematic training to teach." The reasons which have conduced to systematic training for other professions—medicine, engineering, law—apply in their degree to the profession of teaching. If formal training is now held indispensable for the lawyer and the physician (once it was not so held), it should also be indispensable for the teacher. In addition to these clear and plain reasons for training arising from a consideration of the teacher's work, there are others which have to do

* From the summary of "Findings of the Royal Commission of Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools" by W. M. Hardman (Francis Hodgson. price three pence), originally published in the "Educational Times" for February 1897.

with the status of teaching as a profession. If teachers understood their own professional interest, they would certainly demand to be trained. The poor esteem in which teaching is still too often held (in such glaring contrast with any just estimate of its social and national importance) is largely due to want of organization. When teachers rise fully to a consciousness of the manner in which all teachers are bound together by the common nature of their work, they will combine to insist on recognized standards of professional qualification. A consideration of the rightful dignity and influence of the profession is another strong reason for training.

As these abstract reasons are overwhelmingly in favour of training and such tests as can be applied confirm the conclusions reached *à priori*, the case for training may be considered as sufficiently established.

IV.—TRAINING IN ENGAL.

Difficulties and Dangers.

There are great difficulties and some special dangers in introducing secondary training into Bengal; but also, I think, special grounds of hope.

There will be in an acute form the old recurring danger of stereotyping methods, of blind observance of pedagogic rituals. There will be danger of equipping teachers with catchwords and fine phrases without making them really better teachers. There is serious danger of futility after all our trouble: the danger in sum being precisely that which pursues and haunts us in all our educational endeavours in India, that of creating the outward semblance of something which calls itself by the name and adopts the pretensions of some good and useful institution, but has little real life and efficacy. Apart from the difficulty of avoiding these special perils, to provide the necessary organization will be a large and difficult undertaking. The provision of an adequate staff is formidable as a question of expense and as a question of finding the right men. There is the initial difficulty of getting students to train. The most elaborate organization will be nugatory, if there are no intending teachers willing to make use of it. Some effective inducement must be found other than the in-

trinsic benefit of training. That can hardly be expected to be more potent in India than it has been in England. As a rule men who intend to be schoolmasters have some difficulty in carrying on their education to the point of securing the requisite academic qualification for their work. To propose an extra year of study with the outlay involved instead of remunerative work, when such work is readily obtainable, is asking more than human nature can support. We have to consider what inducements of professional advantage we can offer, whether in the form of stipends during training, or direct and certain assurance of better remuneration when trained, either higher salary at starting or special opportunities of promotion. Having secured staff and students and found a home for them to work in, we have further to find schools for them to practise in; and this is not the least difficult, and certainly is not the least essential part of the undertaking.

Reasons for Hopefulness.

Yet in spite of these difficulties and dangers there are grounds for holding that a vigorous effort to train teachers for the work of high English schools is specially demanded at the present time. What these reasons are was partly set forth in the first pages of this report. The reform of the university will have been undertaken in vain, unless we can improve the schools. University education, great as are its needs and claims, has too long engrossed public interest (and even public and private funds) to the disadvantage of secondary education. The centre of interest must shift to the secondary school. There are not wanting signs that it is shifting. We are beginning to discern that the key of the educational position is the school, not the college. Once we fairly envisage mentally the claims of the secondary school, we may well wonder that the priority of the claim has not been more steadily kept in view. We have for half a century been wrangling over university regulations, when we ought to have been building up a sound school education. If, when the dust raised by the controversy over matriculation pass percentages has settled, we come to see the secondary school and its needs, there will be more real prospect of raising the standard of higher education in Bengal.

Our main problem, then, is to improve high school education. A sounder matriculation standard will, doubtless, do something as an incentive to better methods of teaching and learning in the schools. But this is at best an indirect influence. We need to get at the schools from within; to reconstruct and vivify directly. Organization can do something; but in the main improvement must depend on the character and capacity of the teachers. At this point it is that we reach the demand for training. That there is firm ground on which to base the hope of good effects from training is the main conclusion of the preceding sections of this report. There are also some special reasons for believing that training would prove very efficacious at the present time in Bengal.

(A). The first and greatest arises from the elementary nature of the lessons that have first to be learnt: paradoxical as it may seem—from the comparative simplicity of the work needed, if we have grace given us to see this and stand fast to it. Our aim should be to get certain defined and accepted subjects intelligently taught: not to solve recondite problems of curriculum and organization. It is for us at present first and last just a question of intelligent learning. English, Geography, History, Geometry, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic, in all these we want learning with intelligence in place of rote-learning. The disease is quite clearly diagnosed, the cure straightforward and simple, if only it is applied. A course of training planned to effect that cure and consistently and unwearyingly applied through a year ought to accomplish something appreciable.

(B). We start with a relatively clear field. There will be no active objections to training to be overcome. What is in some regards a weakness will for this purpose be a source of strength. We have no well-assured and slightly contemptuous scholastic tradition to conciliate, as in England. There will be no settled reluctance, drawing strength from this tradition, to accept new methods. The opposition to be expected is of another kind—inertia, want of personal initiative and resource. Otherwise there will be a general readiness to welcome new ideas.

(C). Consequently the schoolmaster in Bengal will be eminently teachable. He will be willing to learn and well able to accept and follow precepts which have the attractiveness of reasoned truths, if less resourceful in adapting and modifying methods to suit changing occasions.

These points granted it is reasonable to expect a fair all-round measure of success, not perhaps a very high level of excellence in many cases.

Practical Suggestions for a Scheme of Training.

I would now in conclusion venture to make such practical suggestions for a scheme of training for high school teachers in Bengal as appear to me to follow from a balance of all relevant considerations. I will take first the special points of inquiry discussed in the preceding section:—

(1) In striking out a new line of departure in India, we ought assuredly to adopt as a basis all principles on which authoritative opinion is practically unanimous. We should therefore make our training course separate from, and subsequent to, general education: in the first instance a post-graduate course only, that is, a year's special course of training for men who have already taken a university degree and who are willing to adopt schoolmastering as a profession.

(2) The second question is sufficiently settled for us by the fact that training for teachers in high English schools will assume English as in the main the language of instruction, whereas primary training will be carried on mainly in the vernacular. This is decisive for us apart from the fact that the balance of opinion is for this separation.

(3) I regard it as beyond question that we must decide unhesitatingly for the associated school. Schools as at present organized and managed in Calcutta will not be adequate to our purpose. The training staff must have a school (or schools) of their

own, whether the school is a school specially founded as a demonstration school, or an existing high school placed under the control of the training staff and brought to a model suited for the purposes of training.

(4) I consider that we are forced to what is in my view the hard necessity of reducing the theoretical side of training to a minimum: the planning of lecture courses is so much easier, and indeed pleasanter. The main business of the training staff will be to show how intelligent teaching is possible, and profitable; and to get the teaching done intelligently. The theory taught will, in the main, be that part of theory which is most closely allied to practice, namely, special methods. The more general principles underlying practice need not—must not—be altogether left out, but on the principle of parsimony, that is, of encouraging effort in such a way as to get the best results under given conditions, we shall admit these more speculative parts of training sparingly.

(5) Opinion and practice everywhere give a year as the appropriate length of the training course. For us it must not be shorter. We cannot afford to make it longer.

(6) The amount of school practice is a detail which can only be worked out by the training staff according to the arrangements which the actual working conditions admit of. It has, however, been already roughly indicated that not less than four lesson periods a week for not less than 30 weeks in the year would be a reasonable standard for actual class teaching, supplemented by other forms of practical study in a school amounting in all to three school days in a week for 30 weeks, reckoning the school day for this purpose as three hours.

(7) The criticism lesson should be cautiously adapted.

One open lesson a week would be desirable. The discussion should be on the lines of the German seminar, but should be expository rather than critical: the aim should be rather the clear grasp of principles than the development of critical acumen.

(8) As I understand it has been already settled that Calcutta shall have a training college for its high school teachers, it is waste of time to discuss this point further. It may be agreed that there are stronger reasons for a special college in Calcutta than there are at Oxford or Manchester.

Situation of the Demonstration School.

It may further be suggested that it is peculiarly important, having regard to the character of the climate in Calcutta for the greater part of the year, that the school or schools in which demonstration and practice are carried on should be near the training college.

The school should aim at being a thoroughly good school of its type, the type being the high English school giving a sound general education and preparing its best pupils, or an appreciable proportion of them, for the university and the professions. It should aim at a much higher standard of general efficiency than any actually existing secondary school and at efficiency in all respects; staff, buildings, equipment, discipline, organization, hygienic conditions, games, corporate spirit. It should show how good a well-organized and well-conducted school can be. Consequently its fees should be at least on the same scale as other schools.

The teaching of English.

Improved methods of teaching English should be a leading feature of the school; indeed its chief feature. Improvement in the system of English teaching would be one chief aim of the training college. The school would be for the first few years practically a research laboratory for the testing of better methods. But the research will not be vague and indefinite; it will be along the recognized and definite lines of the direct method of language teaching.* The school would in fact be incidentally a grand experiment testing the validity

* See Appendix I. The Teaching of English in Germany.

of these methods, duly adapted to the special conditions, for the teaching of English in India.

Consequently the school must have a liberal and a highly qualified staff. It may be worth considering whether some two or more members of the training staff should not be English teachers of English on the staff of the school. But all other subjects must be ably represented, too, for it is highly desirable that all members of the school staff should on occasion supervise the practice teaching of the students of the training college.

Observation of teaching.

The observation of good teaching should be a marked feature of the training course, in English most especially, but also in all other subjects of the school curriculum. There should be a relatively large amount of such observation. This is a further consideration pointing to the necessity of a specially strong school staff.

Practice teaching and Tutorial work.

The class teaching by students must be regular and very carefully supervised. Students should undertake continuous courses of teaching. They should be helped in their preparation for this teaching and their teaching should be under guidance more or less close according to the ability and needs of the particular student. To secure this a heavy amount of tutorial work will be involved.

Staff of the Training College.

To make this large amount of tutorial help and supervision possible, the training staff must be relatively numerous. I should lay down that to carry out this part of the training effectively on the plan conceived a master of method could not look after more than ten students.* At the same time the lectures on special method should in every case be undertaken by a skilled teacher in the subject lectured on. The staff for these purposes should be reckoned independently of the Principal.

* For the first two or three years not more than six. An estimate will be found in a Summary Report of Proceedings of a Joint Committee on the Training of Teachers, published December 1897 (Spottiswoode & Co.). "Enquiries have been made from various Secondary Training Colleges as to the proportion between the number of students and the number of lecturers on a staff, and the general opinion of those who have had experience in the training of Secondary Teachers, gives from eight to twelve as a fair number of students per member of teaching staff, the lower number receives the most support." Page 12, note to Resolution 6 (iv).

Lecture Courses.

I hold it of cardinal importance that the number of lectures in the regular course should be carefully limited. No student should have more than five in the week, one of which would be on special method. This number would not, however, include special short courses on subjects involving physical movement, such as blackboard drawing and voice control.

Students.

It is not expedient that the number of students should be great at starting. To form a nucleus a limited number, ten or a dozen Government scholarships might be offered in the first year. These should be assigned to promising graduates intending to become schoolmasters, or to young schoolmasters who have given evidence of superior ability. As many more students should be welcomed as care to come, and for the first two years without fees.

Hopes o Success.

If all these conditions can be fulfilled, and I see no reason why they should not, there would be good hope of most salutary results from training in course of time. We must not be in too great a hurry; we must not pitch our expectations too high; we must fortify ourselves with patience; but, if we can secure the right conditions, I am confident that within five years' time there would be a marked advance in the general efficiency of the schools brought under the influence of trained teachers. The trained teacher and the ideas he represents must also diffuse influences in widening circles which all make for higher standards of work and duty. The very stir of effort and of discussion stimulates interest; there is contagion of right ideas. There should be an immediate advance in strictly technical skill, better teaching of history, geography, mathematics, science, and above all of English. But the deeper results of training will only show themselves gradually in course of time. The best result of training, it has been pointed out to me, is that it gives the teacher the right point of view. It not only gives him a better start, but it fits him to use his experience, as he goes on. Even so we must not be too sanguine. In proportion as our aim is high, satisfactory attainment becomes more difficult. And we must aim at the highest. We are sure to encounter frequent disappointments and we may often look failure in the face; but

with patience and strong determination, I am certain that we shall achieve a success that will fully justify the cost and effort involved.

APPENDIX I.

The Teaching of English in Germany.

I have thought it better to add what I have to say of this part of my furlough study as an appendix, separately from the main body of my report. My stay in Germany was a short one (11th May to 20th May) and my study of German methods has been incidental and supplementary and directed to one point only, the method of teaching English.

My reasons for wishing to go to Germany were the extreme importance in India of the teaching of English and the well attested success of the Germans in learning English. There was good ground for believing that much is to be learnt from German methods, in particular from the direct method, and for hoping that the adaptation of these methods to Indian conditions would have results of the greatest importance. The actual suggestion that I should go in continuation of my study of training and the choice of Frankfort-on-Main, I owe to Dr. Heath. I had also the advantage of reading the monographs on the Direct Method already printed in the series of Occasional Reports published by the Director General of Education in India (as well as those published among the special reports of the English Board of Education) and this was a very great advantage. It also makes a full formal account of any lesser and more incidental study of the same subject superfluous.

My idea was to make a close study of the method in one particular institution, as far as possible following the system through its successive stages from the beginning to the end of the school course. In the short time at my disposal I considered that this would be more profitable than visiting a succession of schools and comparing methods, much as I should have liked to widen my experience. My aim was to attain a clear conspectus of the orderly development of the method in a school where it was practised with confidence and success. By Dr. Heath's kindness I obtained an introduction to Dr. Dörr, Director of the Liebig Realschule, Bockenheim, Frankfort-on-Main, and had reason to think myself exceedingly fortunate in this choice. I could not have found a better guide to the principles and practice of the new method than in the joint author of Vietor and Dörr's English Reader, the collaborator with the actual founder of the Direct Method;* and nothing could have exceeded Dr. Dörr's courtesy and kindness to me personally. I am deeply indebted both to him and to Dr. Heath. Moreover as a Realschule has only three classes learning English (Unter-Sekunda, Ober-Tertia and Unter-Tertia) by Dr. Dörr's advice, and wholly through his good offices, I went on to see the teaching at the Oberrealschule at Heidelberg, where six classes learn English. I had conversations of the greatest interest with the Professors teaching English at both schools, and above all, with Dr. Dörr himself. I followed lessons in all the classes in which English was taught both at Heidelberg and in the Liebig Realschule. Also, again through Dr. Dörr's kind thought, I had a useful talk with Dr. Curtis, Professor of English in the Academy of Social and Commercial Science at Frankfort, himself a pioneer in the new method before he left Scotland for Germany. I planned to stay longer at Frankfort, but Whitsuntide brought a break in school work and I was unable to overstay it.

Occasional Reports. No. 4. Furlough Studies. Modern methods of teaching English in Germany by J. Nelson Fraser: and the Reform in Modern Language Teaching being section III of Educational Studies at the St. Louis Exposition by E. Shern.

* Victor wrote his revolutionary pamphlet Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren in 1882."

The principles of the direct method, the reasons which led to its extensive adoption in Germany, the place English holds in the school curriculum, and the means in detail by which the method is carried out in the class room, are described amply and with lucidity in Mr. Fraser's report. In his briefer monograph Mr. Sharp indicates the essential features of the method with admirable sureness of touch and points out categorically the lessons to be learnt for use in India. I find myself very closely in agreement with Mr. Sharp, especially in thinking that we have a great deal to learn from the new method, and that, if we apply our lessons aright, we can very appreciably raise both the standard of correctness in English and the speed with which a sound practical knowledge of English may be acquired.

All that remains for me to do is to make very briefly my own statement of the conclusions to which I have come and the grounds for them :—

1. I am convinced that results of great practical value are to be hoped from a judicious adaptation of the principles of the direct or natural method. Reduced to their least technical expression these principles are (*a*) teaching first through the ear and through the act of speaking, because naturally (hence the natural method) and in its true essence language is heard and spoken, not written or read; (*b*) forming correct habits of speech by unremitting and methodical practice in speaking; (*c*) endeavouring wherever possible to link the word or phrase in the new language directly with the idea it stands for (hence the direct method) instead of through the mediation of another word or phrase in the mother-tongue; (*d*) using the new language as much as possible even for explanation and the mother-tongue as sparingly as possible.

2. Not merely are useful results to be expected from the adoption and adaptation of these direct methods of teaching English, but this method is peculiarly well fitted to the conditions of the problem of English teaching in India. It meets a want that has more and more of late years been consciously felt. Owing to the peculiar position of English in India a method which aims at a thorough practical command of the spoken language is a method which exactly hits the circumstances. English is wanted in India for the purposes of all higher education, for the every-day intercourse of the lecture room. It is also wanted for the purposes of every-day intercourse in practical business of various kinds. For both these purposes the direct method is expressly adjusted to the end in view; in fact the desired end is in each case that at which the direct method aims. Whatever the balance of the advantages and disadvantages of the old and the new methods may be in other cases, the new method is pre-eminently the method for India.

3. But the method must be specially adapted to the conditions of the problem in India. The precise form of the method for India has yet to be evolved. It will not do merely to take the method as practised in Germany or England and apply it straightway in Indian schools. The problem must be studied at first hand in India and the method worked out in the class-rooms of Indian schools. It may even be said at once that we cannot take over the direct method in its severely philosophic form (for there is a philosophy or at least a psychology underlying it). A combination of old and new is what we want, but the precise combination and the proportion of the constituent elements, have yet to be thought out and can only fully be tested by experience. This may be called unscientific and seem a serious lapse from the reasoned principles which give the method its chief value. But as a matter of fact even in Germany the first rigour of the method has already been relaxed. The employment of the deductive method, where it is useful, is by no means excluded even in strongholds of reform like Frankfort. Explanation in the mother-tongue, translation, learning of grammar rules, are freely used in the Liebig Realschule, when they conduce best to the practical end and the use of good

literature is throughout insisted upon. Nor should it be supposed that even in Germany the superiority of the new method is everywhere acknowledged. There is a strenuous band of resolute reformers, but there is also a strong opposition. "The truth is," says Mr. Winch in his most informing Notes on German Schools (Longmans, 1904), "that these methods whilst possessing brilliant advocates in Germany, also find there their doughtiest opponents; and the vast mass of teachers do not endeavour to confine themselves definitely either to the 'newer' or older methods" (page 200). Nor is there really any impermeable wall of separation between the old and new. The old teaching admits direct imitation and the use of conversation, but half-heartedly and haphazard; the new uses grammar and literature, but leads up to both through the gradual formation of right habits of speech.*

4. What appears certain to me is that we have first to *experiment* with the direct method, and that experiment is thoroughly justified. It is even strange that more experiments have not already been made; for the direct method has been talked about for some years. The only deliberate attempt I know to have been made to adapt the direct method to the teaching of English in Indian Schools is one described in volume II, No. 6 of *Indian Education* by Mr. J. R. Cornah, then Headmaster of the Aligarh Collegiate School, where results appear to have fully answered to expectation. I have also heard that in certain elementary schools in Calcutta, where English is nominally but not really, the mother-tongue of the pupils, the experiment was at one time made of conducting the lessons wholly in English and that far better progress was made in this way than when English was taught through Bengali. At the Teachers' Training College, Colombo, which through the courtesy of Mr. E. Evans, the Principal, I visited recently on my way to Calcutta, the direct method is used in an anglo-vernacular school with satisfactory results.

5. All these considerations point to the great and instant need of the Training College in Calcutta, and the momentous work to be done there in respect of improved methods of English teaching, as I have already suggested on page 59 of this report. Teachers have first to be trained in the principles and practice of the direct method. Here and there, no doubt, when put in possession of the root ideas, an active-minded teacher would work out a system for himself. But for most teachers special training will be necessary both to ensure a real grip of the principles and a sufficient mastery of the practice of the method. This is, then, one most important piece of work for the Training College in Calcutta to do. That it may do it effectually it is essential that it should have on its staff teachers who are thoroughly conversant with the new method, and *at the same time*, have experience of the work of Indian high English schools. Possibly both conditions cannot be realized at first. The former qualification is absolutely indispenable, the latter must be added as soon as may be. A yet greater task for the Training College is the elaboration and progressively more assured definition, of the special method best suited to the teaching of English in Indian schools. The method which will give the best results in India will be a method specially adjusted to the special conditions. It will not in all respects be identical with any system now in use either in Germany or England. To evolve this method is the work of the student of the science of education, whether he be a Professor of Education, a Master of Method in a Training College, or a teacher of English in a school. When the system (or systems, for there may be more than one) has

* Mr. Winch sums up "but as is usual in these controversies each side makes valuable affirmations which the other side too rashly rejects."

"Expressed popularly we might say that whereas the older school tends to forget that boys have ears and voices and that languages are sometimes spoken, the newer school forgets that they have eyes and hands and some reasoning powers and that languages are also written and read."—*Notes on German Schools, page* 201.

been worked out, I am confident that results will be obtained which would now seem astonishing. There is first much hard work to be done and serious difficulties to be got over.

These conclusions are based partly on my experience at Heidelberg and Frankfort, partly on what I have seen of teaching by the direct method in Great Britain (French, German, Latin, Greek), partly on reading and reflection and some slight effort towards the actual preparation of a method for India. Dr. Dörr himself considers that we might introduce the method in Bengal with reasonable hope of advantage. He acknowledges the difficulty in respect of training, but does not think it should prove insuperable. He is himself a strong advocate of a phonetic basis and with good reason, judging by what I heard of its use in teaching in the Liebig Realschule. A phonetic propædeutic in an Indian training college and phonetic drill in the school-room may well cause us pause, implying as it seems to do, the co-ordination of the sounds of Indian speech with the alphabet of the association phonètique internationale, or some other accepted system; yet the task should not be an impossible one (compare *Occasional Reports* No. 4, pages 66 and 139). The phonograph can probably give valuable aid. At all events I have Dr. Dörr's support in holding that to work for training and the improvement of the status of the teacher are right aims. There is, as far as I understand, no formal training in the direct method for the language masters at the Liebig Realschule. The Director of the school has the chief voice in the selection of new masters and naturally chooses with an eye to the method in which he believes. There appears to be no difficulty in getting a common system to work. An interesting point is that each set of boys forming a class is taken through the course year after year by the same master, the master changing his class along with the boys. This secures continuity in the method.

Finally a consideration which ought to justify assured hopes for the success of the method in India is the relatively greater importance of the language for Indian boys and the vastly greater time they give to it. In Germany English does not come first, but last, as a language subject. In the Realschule and in the Oberrealschule French has the precedence (except, I believe, at Hamburg). In the Realschule English is studied for three years only (age 13 to 16) and for four hours a week. In the Oberrealschule for six years (13 to 19). In a Gymnasium it is taught as an alternative subject in the three highest classes (16 to 19) for two hours a week only, and yet very remarkable results have been achieved, at least by Max Walter at the Musterschule in Frankfort. When we compare this subordinate condition in the curriculum and the time given to the subject with the position of English in the time-table of an Indian high school, it is obvious how golden is the opportunity of the teacher.

APPENDIX II.

Historical Sketch ; the Movement for Training Secondary Teachers in England.

" Little or no separate provision for the training of secondary teachers was made in this kingdom till within the last quarter of the 19th century and even yet the need of it has not obtained general recognition." As a concise summing up of the facts this statement, which forms the first sentence in the

section on the Training of Secondary Teachers in Graham Balfour's Educational System of Great Britain and Ireland (page 183) is broadly true, inasmuch as the first systematic training expressly for secondary school teachers was begun in 1878 and the first public lectures in education date from 1871. But a long history lies behind these first beginnings and must be carried to a point at which the distinction of primary and secondary becomes unmeaning. Any attempt at a full history of the movement for training teachers lies beyond the scope of this inquiry, and I have not the materials for it, but an outline of the chief events and stages in the progress by which the opinion that teachers ought to be trained made itself effectively felt, and in particular how the present provision for training secondary teachers has come into being, contributes to an understanding of the whole situation as regards secondary training in England at the present time and will not be irrelevant. I cannot in this separate secondary from primary training, for the history of the two forms of training is interwoven and begins, as just remarked, before the distinction of primary and secondary has any significance.

Training colleges in England date from the fifth decade of the 19th century and in America from about the same time. On the Continent of Europe the obligation of training the teacher was recognized from the beginning of the century and there had been sporadic attempts at training, chiefly in Germany, at various times in the 18th and 17th centuries. Generally, there being little or no popular education, these had to do with a form of education which would now be classed as secondary, but the community known as the Christian Brethren are credited with a first essay in the training of elementary teachers in 1685. The Jesuits have actually trained the members of their own order intended for school work since the Ratio Studiorum was promulgated : the Ratio reached its mature form in 1599 and was not altered again till 1832. In England the case for training was amply and eloquently set forth towards the end of the 16th century by Robert Mulcaster, a schoolmaster who claims rank with Ascham, Colet, Busby, Arnold and Thring. In his work on Pedagogy entitled " Position " and published in 1581, Mulcaster advocates a scheme of a training college or seminary for schoolmasters. He conceives this seminary as one of four special professional colleges within the university for divines, lawyers, physicians and schoolmasters, respectively, and argues weightily for placing schoolmastering as a profession on equal terms with the other three. " Be either children or schools so small a portion of our multitude? Or is the framing of young minds, and the training of their bodies so mean a point of cunning? Be schoolmasters in this realm such a paucity, as they are not even in good sadness to be soundly thought on. He that will not allow of this careful provision for such a seminary of masters is most unworthy either to have had a good master himself, or hereafter to have a good one for his son. Why should not teachers be well provided for to continue their whole life in the school, as divines, lawyers, physicians do in their several professions?.....Whereas now, the school being used but for a shift, afterwards to pass thence to the other professions, though it send out very sufficient men to them, itself remaineth too naked, considering the necessity of the thing. I conclude, therefore, that this trade requireth a particular college for these four causes. (1) First for the subject, being the means to make or mar the whole fry of our state. (2) Secondly for the number whether of them that are to learn, or of them that are to teach. (3) Thirdly for the necessity of the profession which may not be spared. (4) Fourthly for the matter of their study, which is comparable to the greatest professions, for language, for judgment, for skill how to train, for variety in all points of learning, wherein the framing of the mind, and the exercising of the body craveth exquisite consideration,

beside the staidness of the person." All this shapes itself in Mulcaster's mind very much as it appears to believers in training to-day. It is doubtful if the points he makes have ever been better put. It is worth noting also that in Mulcaster's view the student is not to enter the special college until he has passed through the "College of Philosophy," in other words until he has completed his general education : he thus shows himself in agreement with those who hold that training should for secondary teachers be postgraduate.

Systematic training in England begins comparatively late, but it makes a connected story from the opening of the nineteenth century, the days of Lancaster and Bell. The training college system in England is a consecutive development from the school opened in 1789 in the neighbourhood of the Borough Road by the young Quaker, Joseph Lancaster. In 1789 Lancaster was a youth in very moderate circumstances with little education or previous training, but with a great fund of beneficent energy. Like Pestalozzi he was possessed with a sense of the need of education for all, for the poor and ignorant most of all. With no apparatus and the scantiest of resources he set to work to form a school and met with extraordinary success, a success continually thwarted by his own incapacity to deal prudently with money. His enthusiasm communicated itself to others better endowed with resources and business capacity : the ultimate result was that Lancaster left England a bankrupt, emigrating to like misfortunes in America, but his work lived after him in the British and Foreign School Society. This society formally dating from 1814, but founded as the Royal Lancastrian Institution in 1808, has along with the National Society (founded 1811) led the way in building up a state system of training for elementary teachers.

The National Society traces to Dr. Andrew Bell, some time Army Chaplain in India, who as superintendent of a military orphanage in Madras, invented and developed the pupil teacher system. Bell was in India 1789 to 1797, and on his return to Europe he published a pamphlet explaining his system and urging its universal adoption. Lancaster read Bell's pamphlet and was attracted to him, and for a time there was a prospect of their co-operating in the promotion of popular education. But Lancaster was a Quaker by upbringing, and an undenominationalist at heart; Bell was a clergyman of the Established Church. Before long they were sundered by that divergence on the subject of religious instruction in schools which remains to-day the great obstacle to a united effort in England for the perfection of a national system of education. The societies springing from their labours represent the two opposed standpoints. The training colleges founded by the school society are undenominational; those founded by the National Society are Church of England. Between them they administer (subject to the control of the Board of Education) most of the elementary training in England and Wales; both have done work of the highest national value.

Bell, a better economist than Lancaster, left a large fortune to be devoted to educational purposes and from the funds in the hands of the Bell Trustees the first University Chairs of Education were founded in 1876 at St. Andrews and Edinburgh.

The efforts of Lancaster and Bell were those of private persons and it was still some years before the obligation of state action was recognised. The two societies paved the way for it.

The first grant for popular education was made in 1833 : it was £20,000 and was divided between the two societies. Training came quickly on the heels of teaching. A beginning had already been made by Lancaster as early as 1804 : he needed teachers for his own schools and he undertook not only to train them, but to board, lodge and clothe them too. In 1839 a proposal was put forward for a government training college, but it met with such

opposition from religious bodies that it had to be abandoned. Next year a normal school (now St. John's Training College) was founded at Battersea, but made over to the National Society in 1844. St. Mark's Chelsea (National Society) was founded in 1841 and the Borough Road Training College (School Society) about the same time. The prime mover in the actual establishment of training colleges was Dr. Kay, afterwards better known as Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth. In 1846 there were nine training colleges. In 1872 there were forty-one.

The principle that primary school teachers ought to be trained for their work was by this time well established, but there was as yet no organization at all for training secondary teachers and very little recognition of the need of it. It must be remembered, however, that the College of Preceptors was founded in 1846 and that the objects with which it was founded included the professional training of secondary teachers. The college at once instituted examinations to test the qualifications of schoolmasters : these have been held continuously since 1847 and papers in the Theory and Practice of Education have always formed part of the test. But to provide actual training was as yet beyond the Society's resources. It unfortunately also happens that the College of Preceptors represented only the aspirations of one section of secondary schoolmasters, and that the section for the most part less fortunately placed in respect both of reputation and attainments, masters in private schools. The masters in the endowed schools, both the greater public schools and the lesser grammar schools alike, mostly held aloof. Consequently such influences as the college brought to bear on the question of training affected them very little. Nevertheless the influence of the College of Preceptors has been steadily exerted in favour of training and it long remained the only organized body working for training. The advocacy of registration went along with this, and in 1869 through the influence of the college the first Bill for the registration of teachers was brought into Parliament, the first of many unsuccessful efforts. In 1861 the college had instituted evening meetings for the discussion of educational subjects, and in 1871 arrangements were made for regular lectures on teaching. In 1873 the attempt was made to found and endow a Professorship, and for two years Mr. Joseph Payne was Professor of the Theory and Practice of Education in the college. Meanwhile public attention had been forcibly drawn to secondary education by the Parliamentary Commissions of 1861 and 1864, investigating the endowed schools of England, the former the nine famous foundations at that time recognized as the great English Public Schools (the Endowed Schools Commission), the latter all other endowed schools. The Report of the Public Schools Commission appeared in 1864; that of the Endowed Schools Commission (in twenty volumes) in 1867. Neither of these reports contains any recommendation as to training. By the year 1872 the interest of the public schools in training had been so far roused that the Headmasters' Conference (instituted 1869-1871) which met in that year made a representation to the University of Cambridge in favour of some organization for the promotion of training. Of this representation Canon Lyttelton said in 1902 " for nearly twenty years the Headmasters refused to support the machinery for training at Cambridge which they themselves had asked to be fashioned. No reason for this refusal has ever been given."* In 1876 the Bell Chairs of the Theory and Practice of Education were founded at Edinburgh and St. Andrews, and Professor Laurie, first holder of the Chair at Edinburgh, delivered a memorable inaugural address in favour of training in that year.

Things had moved slowly, but all these were signs of growing interest in training for secondary teachers and after this development is more rapid

* Address on the Training of Teachers. Birmingham, 1902.

In 1877 a small beginning of secondary training was made at the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, through the devotion of Miss Margaret Newman who gave all her time and half of her private income to the work.* In the same year the Teachers' Training and Registration Society was founded with the two objects expressed in its title definitely in view on behalf more especially of women teachers. In 1878 the first Training College (now the Maria Grey College, Brondesbury) was founded by ladies in Bishopsgate. The next year, 1879, is marked by the institution of the Cambridge Teachers' Training Syndicate. Lectures were arranged in the same year : examinations were held and certificates awarded in 1880. Similar proposals had been made at Oxford in 1878 and had been rejected. The influence of the Cambridge Teachers' Training Syndicate has been widely felt, partly through the close association of its certificate with the work of the Women's Colleges; but even more through the support given to the cause of training by this practical recognition from the university. Among the first lecture courses delivered was one by Sir Joshua Fitch which in its published form as " Lectures on Teaching " has attained and keeps rank as a classic. The London University was the next to award diplomas : examinations have been held since 1883. In 1883 also the first attempt was made to establish a training college for men. This was the Finsbury Training College with Mr. H. Courthope Bowen as its head. The attempt proved abortive. It was closed for lack of students in 1886. In 1885 two more women's training colleges were opened, the Cambridge Training College for Women† and St. Hilda's, Cheltenham, the latter the outcome of the efforts first begun in 1877. In 1888 a Training Department was attached to the Mary Datchelor School at Camberwell. In 1889 a paper convincingly advocating training for masters in secondary schools‡ was written by Mr. J. J. Findlay, now Professor at Manchester. The still prevailing apathy in respect of training is, however, abundantly shown by the writer's pleas, especially when he says "it is scarcely worth while as yet to discuss in detail any scheme or system for higher grade training. We have yet to convince the public and masters themselves, that training is necessary."

In 1890 provision was made in the code of the Education Department for the establishment of Day Training Colleges. This step was to have far-reaching effects on secondary training because the secondary departments opened at these colleges now constitute the main organization for the training of men teachers. Day training colleges were established in 1891 in Oxford, Cambridge, Manchester and several other Universities or University Colleges. Secondary teachers have been trained at the Leeds Day Training College from the first. In 1890 two more Registration Bills were brought in (the Temple and Acland Bills) and as a result a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed in 1891 and reported that registration of teachers in secondary schools is desirable. In 1892 a training department was opened at Bedford College. In 1893 a Conference on Secondary Education was held at Oxford, strong opinions were expressed in favour of training for secondary

* Miss Newman unfortunately died at the end of the year. Miss Beale wrote of her in an appeal for the maintenance of her work (January 1878) : " To those who knew Miss Newman I need say but little. What we felt most was the simplicity with which she gave so much. She seemed unconscious that she was doing anything remarkable in going to live in a small house with one servant and undertaking all the labour that such a ceremony implied." A large sum (£1,200) was at once subscribed, one half being contributed by the college staff and the work was carried on as a sacred duty. Subsequently in 1884-85 it was developed into St. Hilda's College.

† The beginnings of the Cambridge College are also instructive. I quote from the prospectus: " The College began without funds in two small cottages just outside Cambridge. A few friends guaranteed the working expenses of the first year and four schools in Cambridge allowed the experiment to be tried of students teaching in them."

‡ *Teaching as a Career for University Men.*—In spite of all that has been written since, this paper is still full of stimulus.

teachers. In 1893 two Bills, a Temple Bill and a Macdonald Bill, were before the House of Commons, the former brought in three times. The Temple Bill represented the views of the College of Preceptors favouring a register for secondary teachers only, the Macdonald Bill those of the Teachers' Guild requiring a register of a more comprehensive character. The year 1894 is fateful as the year in which the Commission on Secondary Education began its sittings. Its report (published in 9 volumes, 1895) is an authoritative digest of opinion on secondary education in England, and all questions pertaining thereto and needing little modification to suit the circumstances of the present time. The report recommends training for the secondary teacher with no uncertain voice. "We are disposed to think it generally desirable that those who intend to adopt teaching as a profession should pass through a course of special preparation for it. There are, no doubt, some persons of such an inborn gift for this kind of work as hardly to need any training for it, just as there are others so naturally deficient in the qualities which make a good teacher that no amount of training will enable them to attain excellence. Between these extremes there are many whose natural capacities, be they greater or smaller, may be substantially improved by the special preparation which is contemplated : and even persons whose natural gift is unmistakeable may have something to learn from the accumulated experience of those who have studied the subject and become practical experts in it. The teacher who proceeds to his work equipped with knowledge of the matters to be taught, but without any science of the process which the learner's mind follows is likely, however able, to make mistakes at first, mistakes which may be permanently injurious to the weaker intelligences. If he has the gift of intuitive intellectual sympathy in a high degree he will learn in time how to correct such mistakes; in other words he will learn the science of learning and with it the art of teaching by much converse with learners as he proceeds. If he be not so specially gifted, he may continue in error all his days, supposing he continues to neglect what may be called the scientific aspect of his work and trusts to natural tact alone."

"Similar considerations apply to the teacher's work so far as it consists in the exercise of moral influence and the development of character in the pupil. It is indeed still more fatally easy to misunderstand persistently the conditions of stimulus and guidance to the will than to overlook those which regulate the processes of intelligence" (Volume I, page 322).

Equally emphatic is its pronouncement on the question of registration. "Upon no subject of all those on which we have taken evidence or received memoranda was there more general agreement than as to the necessity of some measure for the registration of teachers" (*ib.* page 192). Its recommendations in this regard form the basis of the legislation which authorized the establishment of a register of teachers in 1902. That the recommendations were not more exactly followed is in part responsible for the fiasco of the Register already described. In 1895 Durham University followed the example of Cambridge and London by instituting a special secondary certificate; secondary departments were opened at Manchester and Liverpool. In 1896 a second attempt at establishing a training college for men was made, this time by the College of Preceptors and with Mr. Findlay as principal. The Council of the College of Preceptors had for many years cherished the desire to complete the services of the college to the cause of training by founding a training college in its own premises. Since 1887 the college had moved into its present handsome premises in Bloomsbury square and these were adequate for the purpose. This second effort, however, to found a day training college for men resulted in failure, again owing to lack of students. The motives inducing men to train were still wanting. The college was closed in

1898 and Mr. Findlay went to Cardiff where he wrote his *Principles of class teaching*. In 1896 a statute establishing a diploma and examination for it was passed at Oxford. A conference on secondary education was held this year at Cambridge and resolutions in favour both of training and registration were passed by large majorities. The conference was summoned on the occasion of the publication of the report of the Commission of 1895. In 1897 another conference on secondary education was held at Newcastle. The Cambridge scheme was also revised in this year and a secondary department was opened in the day training college at Cambridge, as also at Bangor. In 1898 holiday courses were instituted at the College of Preceptors and the Maria Grey College was removed to Brondesbury. In 1899 the Oxford scheme of training was revised and education was recognized by the University as a subject of study by the appointment of Mr. M. W. Keatinge (author of a standard work on Comenius) as Reader in Education. This was also the year of the enactment of the Board of Education Bill, the measure which established the Board of Education as the supreme educational authority and conferred the powers under which a Consultative Committee framed regulations for a Teachers' Register in 1902. The provision for the maintenance of the Register was made by the appointment of a Teachers' Registration Council of 12 members, 6 appointed by the State and 6 by various educational associations. The Register was to be a list of teachers named in alphabetical order and was to be kept in two columns, column A for certificated teachers in elementary day schools, column B for teachers fulfilling conditions which meant practically that they were teachers in secondary schools. The original demand had been for a register of secondary teachers only. From 1890 this had been complicated by a newer claim, supported by the Teachers' Guild and the National Union of Teachers for a comprehensive register including all qualified teachers. The Committee of 1891 recommended a register of secondary teachers. The Commission of 1894 recommended a single register for all teachers and suggested that "Admission to the register should be offered on the same terms to all teachers in whatever class or kind of school they may be engaged or seeking engagement, nor should persons teaching in private families be debarred from its advantages" (Report, Volume I, page 319). The Act of 1899 speaks only of a register which shall contain the names of the registered teachers arranged in alphabetical order. The two columns of the register of 1902 attempted, it must be admitted, to reconcile two incompatible aims. Nevertheless the practical result of the institution of the teachers' register was to give a rapid and decided impetus to secondary training. Everywhere the register was hailed (alike by friend and foe) as a sign of the victory of training. A conference at Cambridge, held in the same year, discussed the whole subject of training with the utmost fullness and seriousness. At Oxford the management of training was handed over to a new delegacy, the Oxford Delegacy for the training of teachers. The London Day Training College was opened with an address from Professor Adams which reads like a pæan of victory. Another conference on training was held at Durham in 1903. The temporary provisions under which masters already working at schools could be registered were easy: by the end of 1904 there were 7,671 names enrolled; by the end of 1905 the total was over ten thousand. The term for which the temporary provisions held good was fixed for three years, and was lengthened to four: a crisis for the register was bound to come when these ceased in 1906. A note of alarm is already sounded in the Report of the Registration Council in 1904, and this alarm is deepened in 1905. Nevertheless the announcement made early in 1906 that the register was to be abolished by a clause in the new Education Act was quite unexpected and somewhat in the nature of a bombshell. Granted that

the register was grounded in inconsistency and threatened with failure: still it had not yet failed in point of fact, and the register had been set going in all solemn seriousness as the culmination of a long period of effort and discussion; five years was hardly a full and sufficient test of its working value. There is something startling in the levity with which the results (however faulty) of so much good effort were to be stultified and the implied compact with eleven thousand teachers annulled by an odd clause in a Bill introduced into Parliament for a purpose totally removed from the training or registration of the secondary teacher. The sequel to the Bill and the depressing consequences to training institutions have already been described.

This part of the history need not be repeated. The position now reached is that the Education (Administrative Provision) Bill, introduced in April 1907, makes provision for the constitution of a register under new conditions designed to amend the defects of the old.

It remains only to note that the new University of Birmingham opened a course for a secondary diploma in 1904, the University of Sheffield in 1907. A new women's training college which has rapidly attained success under Miss Dodd's experienced management was opened at Cherwell Hall, Oxford, in 1905. The hopeful outlook in Scotland consequent on the adoption by the Scotch Board of Education of a scheme which covers the training of teachers in all classes of schools is described below in Note C.

NOTE A.

The College of Preceptors.

Though the College of Preceptors is not at the present time an institution for the training of teachers in the sense of providing a complete course of training (it examines only and grants diplomas), it is proper to recognize that since its foundation 60 years ago the college has steadily advocated the training of the secondary teachers and was the first organized body in England to do so. The College was founded in 1846 by schoolmasters for the express purpose of raising the qualifications and improving the status of secondary teachers, or more immediately of teachers in private schools. As a means to this end training was an object from its first institution, though possibly training had not so deep a meaning then as it has now. The first of the resolutions passed at the meeting (20th June 1846) in which members were enrolled and the college established was "that some proof of qualification, both as to the amount of knowledge and the art of conveying it to others, should be required.....of all persons who may be desirous of entering the profession."* Among the objects enumerated in the charter granted to the college in 1849 is that of "affording facilities to the teacher for the acquiring of a sound knowledge of his profession."* Examinations for teachers have been held since 1847 and the Theory and Practice of Education as a part of the examination was from the very beginning 'the distinctive and characteristic feature.'* Since 1869 there have been three grades: Associate, Licentiate, and Fellow. In 1895 there were in all 350 teacher candidates for these diplomas.

In order to interest schoolmasters in their profession evening meetings for the discussion of educational subjects were instituted in 1861. In 1871 a Lectureship in Education was established and lectures were delivered by Mr. Joseph Payne. In 1873 Mr. Payne was made Professor of the Science and Art of Education. This was three years before the establishment of the

* Fifty years of Progress in Education—a review of the work of the College of Preceptors.

Chairs of Education at Edinburgh and St. Andrews. A fully organized training college was an object for which the Council long worked. At last, when £4,000 had been collected, the college was opened in 1895 with Dr. Findlay, now Professor at Manchester, as Principal. Owing to lack of support the attempt had, however, to be abandoned in 1898. Since then the active training work of the College of Preceptors has been again confined to courses of lectures for teachers. The programme for 1906 (Thirty-fourth Annual Series) comprises twelve lectures by Professor Adams on the Psychological Bases of Teaching and Education, and twenty-eight lectures on Special Method in seven sections of four lectures each, all by men of eminence in the various subjects.

The College has played a leading part also in the movement for registration. The demand for a register is implied in the resolution of 1846 already quoted. From 1860 a register has been a declared object of policy and the Registration Bills of 1879 (Playfair Bill), 1881 (Lubbock Bill), 1890 (Temple Bill), were directly promoted by the College of Preceptors.

The widest activities of the College have for a long time, however, been the examination of schools, an enterprise in which the college showed the way to the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations. This work, which was no part of the original scheme, began in 1850 and grew to such an extent that in 1890 over 15,000 candidates were examined.

NOTE B.

The Jesuit System of Training.

It is difficult to do justice to the position of the Jesuits in respect of training. They have trained their teachers for three hundred years, ever since the Ratio Studiorum took final shape in 1599, and their system has from the first been remarkably complete and thorough within the limits imposed by the Society's constitution. The Jesuit Order had no need of the message of the latter-day pioneers who have brought about the general movement for the training of the secondary teacher. Nevertheless the training of St. Mary's Hall, Stonyhurst, stands necessarily outside the system of training which it has been my main business to describe, partly because of its different origin, partly because of the distinctive character given to it by a special aim regulating the more broadly educational aim. It is not homogeneous with lay training and cannot be spoken of in the same terms. It has now, however, been brought into line with the new movement in so far as St. Mary's Hall was in 1904 admitted to Appendix D of the Regulations for the Teachers' Register as an institution where training qualifying for registration may be obtained.

The difficulties of a fair account are, fortunately for my purpose, sensibly lessened by a clear and concise statement, drawn up by the authorities of St. Mary's Hall for the representatives of the Board of Education, when visiting Stonyhurst in 1904 to make a report preliminary to recognition, and this I have been privileged to see. I cannot do better than quote freely from it :—

"The methodical training of our teachers so much urged upon the English educational world during recent years, was practically provided for in regard to its own members by the Society of Jesus in the *Ratio Studiorum* more than three centuries ago. In that document the general scheme of our studies was laid down in considerable detail, both as to matter and form. It dealt with the higher advanced University classes, which included the students of our own Order, as well as with the work of the ordinary secondary schools. It is scarcely necessary to say that the subject matter of the curriculum has been

profoundly changed in the interval, as will be seen from the syllabus of Stonyhurst or any of our schools. In the year 1599 when the *Ratio* was issued Modern Science had not yet been born, mathematics were in their infancy, the literatures of the great modern languages were only beginning to be made, Geography was in a like condition, and History was a mere chronology of facts. Consequently, the position which these subjects now-a-days occupy in our system of education is totally different from that which they formerly held. On the other hand, the methods and exercises in our own training found by long experience to turn out efficient schoolmasters have been preserved, but at the same time have been improved in sundry respects." (Sketch of the Jesuit Method of Training Teachers carried on at St. Mary's Hall, Stonyhurst, paragraph 2.)

The embodiment of systematic training in the Jesuit scheme is all the more interesting, inasmuch as it is secondary education with which the Order has been chiefly concerned, not primary. Moreover the special training at St. Mary's Hall is only part of the whole system of Jesuit education, which is an organic whole. The training at Stonyhurst is closely correlated with the work of Jesuit schools. The most remarkable feature of the Jesuit training system is, indeed, the presence in every school of a prefect of studies, who is expressly a Master of Method permanently resident in the school. The very business of the prefect of studies is to supervise the teaching of all classes and especially to help and direct the young teacher, so that the training of the teacher is continued in a real form after appointment to a school. The Jesuit system thus combines some of the features of the university and student-teacher systems.

For a description of the Jesuit organization as a whole I may conveniently quote again : " It consists of a large training centre at St. Mary's Hall, Stonyhurst, in intimate union with the eight or nine Jesuit schools throughout Great Britain. These latter are virtually the ' practising schools ' of the young teachers whose education in the theoretical part of their profession has been carried on in the former institution. In St. Mary's Hall the most ample provision is made for instruction in Theory, History and Methods of Teaching, whilst the general studies there are planned with a view to the cultivation of the qualities and habits most valuable to the future schoolmaster. In the schools the young teacher's training is completed under the supervision of the Prefect of Studies, who is in a peculiarly favourable position for fulfilling the office of *Local Master of Method*. For, on the one hand the unity of organization and the solidarity of the Jesuit schools will secure that the local prefect of studies is in close connection with the master of method at St. Mary's Hall and will enable the latter to have carried out any arrangements that seem desirable in good notes of lessons, etc., by the novice teacher. On the other hand, the fact that the prefect of studies dwells in the same house with the young teacher and that he is responsible for the general success of the teaching of the schools will secure that his supervision is effectual." (Sketch, paragraph 13.)

The training of St. Mary's Hall is extended over three years. This makes a cardinal difference as compared with the one year of training normal at other institutions. So does the complementary fact that the general education of the teacher is being continued at the same time. These three years follow two years' general training and normally two years' study of Classics, Mathematics, History, French and English literatures, which have been preceded by a full school education up to the age of 18; so that the seminarists at Stonyhurst are of comparatively mature age, at least 22 to 25, and they have already entered the Jesuit society. Another notable difference is the absence of practice teaching during the years of training, involving a separation of

the practical and theoretical sides of training. There are neither 'model' nor 'criticism' lessons. "After mature consideration we have decided not to adopt the method of 'model lessons' to boys or 'practising classes' during the period at St. Mary's Hall" (paragraph 10). The utility of these exercises is not questioned, but it is pointed out that "the benefit which they afford is otherwise secured in our system." The place of criticism lessons in particular is taken by numerous repetitions or disputations. "Every student in turn, consequently several times each year, has to give to his fellow-students, under the presidency of the professor, an exposition of the matter already treated. In doing so he must face the interrogations or objections of the class and will have the benefit of friendly advice and criticism afterwards." This seems very much the criticism lesson in another form (with the teachers under training as the class). Further the presence of the prefect of studies and of a settled tradition in the Jesuit schools is thought to counterbalance the omission of previous practice in a school.

The more special pedagogical instruction received in the three years at Stonyhurst is summarised (paragraph 9). "During that interval the future teacher will hear two lectures a week for nearly 40 weeks each year on Theory and History of Education. Each summer vacation he will hear 20 lectures on methods of Teaching and Organization or about 60 during his three years' stay at St. Mary's Hall. These courses of lectures are so distributed that he will have the opportunity of listening to at least a dozen different experienced and efficient teachers, the most competent both within and without our own Order that we can secure. During each of the three years he will have had to take his turn in the weekly repetitions to his fellow-students of lessons in Mathematics, Science and Philosophy, whilst he will have received again and again the help of the advice and criticism suggested by his defects in these exercises."

I do not attempt any criticism of this system. It is plain that there is much to admire in it and much to learn from it in respect of thoroughness. It is also plain that it could not be reproduced outside the Jesuit Order.

I cannot close without recording the great interest and pleasure of a day I spent at Stonyhurst in March last by the kind consent of the Rector, Father Gordon,* and of the Revd. Michael Maher, Superior of St. Mary's Hall. Stonyhurst College is four miles from the nearest railway station (Whalley), in a beautiful part of Lancashire, well removed from manufacturing towns. The college occupies the park-like grounds of an old hall, everything about it is spacious and in the grand style including the boys' play-rooms, which are the most sumptuous school club-rooms I have ever seen. There is real open country all round, the scenery is varied and a trout stream skirts the grounds. All the internal arrangements are admirably complete. The chapels (there are two of them) are especially beautiful.

NOTE C.

The new Regulations for Training in Scotland.

In the course of 1906 (the Prefatory memorandum is dated 7th June) a complete scheme for the training of teachers in all grades of schools in Scotland was issued by the Scotch Education Department. As this is the first attempt in the British Isles to formulate a comprehensive body of regulations providing for the suitable training of *all* teachers in schools, and not merely in the British Isles, but as far as I am aware, in any country in the world, it is worth while to review it in detail.

* Since unhappily deceased.

More than this, after the half-heartedness and vacillation which have marked public policy in respect of training in England, especially in the last two years, it is refreshing as a cool breeze in tropical seas to find the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland sweeping aside doubts and hesitations and, having accepted training as good in principle, proceeding simply and consistently to give effect to the principle in practice. These regulations at once place Scotland again, where one expects to find her, in a leading position in respect of the organization of the training of teachers. To the student of training, depressed by the fiasco of the register in England, the mere reading of these regulations is a tonic. They are simple, sane and comprehensive. There is no backward look; they go straight for the goal, and the goal is boldly said to be "that every teacher in a Scottish school shall be thoroughly trained and equipped for the work he is to undertake" (page 9). It is recognised that this cannot happen all at once and suitable provisions are made for the transition. But this is the ideal aimed at. The training of the secondary teacher, therefore, here at last finds its place in a national system. "While duly safeguarding the interests of those now serving on the staff of intermediate and secondary schools under the inspection of the department, my Lords desired to secure that, for the future, all teachers of higher subjects shall be thoroughly trained for their most responsible duties" (page 5). At the same time in view of the mere magnitude of popular education and in deference also no doubt to considerations of the past history of training and established interests "the main object of the regulations is to secure a sufficient supply of well equipped teachers for the work of the ordinary public schools of the country" (page 4). In order to carry out these purposes the provision of training of all kinds is for the future entrusted to four special "Provincial Committees for the training of teachers," all authorities previously concerned with training being superseded or merged in these. These committees were established by a minute of the Committee of Council on Education dated 30th January 1905. They are expressly connected (respectively) with the four Scotch Universities of Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Glasgow and St. Andrews, and in their arrangements they "will avail themselves to the full of institutions accessible to the students—the University, the Technical College, the School of Art, etc., and will establish under their own management such classes only as these institutions cannot easily provide." Universities have no longer a responsibility for training, and diploma examinations cease. University courses of lectures are included as part of training at the discretion of the local Committees.

Incidentally the Professor of Education at Edinburgh is relieved of the laborious work of superintending practical training. The whole organization for training will be controlled by the Provincial Committees subject to the regulations of the Education Department.

I am here concerned only with the provision for the training of teachers of higher subjects, which is practically the same as teachers in secondary schools. The scheme of training approved by a joint committee at Dundee on the 11th of May of this year is elaborate and precise. Training is to be for a year: three terms of ten weeks each. There are to be lecture courses on (1) Hygiene; (2) Psychology, Logic and Ethics; (3) Principles and History of Education; (4) Present-day problems; (5) Special methods. The number of hours of instruction to be given in each course is defined with exactitude; the total is a minimum of 360 hours. Practical training is to extend over the three terms; five hours a week for 30 weeks, making a total of not less than 150 hours in all, 50 of these to be actual teaching. The teaching is to take place in "recognized" schools and is apparently to be supervised by officers specially appointed by the provisional committees. It is worth while to re-

produce below the draft in full, because for the present it represents the last word on the formulation of a complete synopsis of a secondary training course. It is instructive to compare the figures given with my own conclusions (on pages 58, 60 and 61 of the body of this report) formed previously to seeing the new scheme of the Scotch Provincial Committees.

The draft scheme was adopted by the Joint Committee, but it appears on comparison with the time-tables drawn up for St. Andrews and Glasgow that considerable variation is admissible in detail, especially in respect of the number of hours of instruction; Glasgow appears to give a total of 530 hours; St. Andrews of 600. I refrain from detailed criticism but the number of lectures appears excessive, and I doubt the wisdom of hard-and-fast rules as to the number of lectures in a particular subject. It is not apparent as yet whether the provision for practice will be effective; this may even be the weak side of the scheme. There can be no question of its thoroughness and comprehensiveness as a whole. The draft is as under :—

Scheme for Professional Training of Secondary Teachers (Article 44).

A draft scheme for the Professional Training of Teachers of Higher Subjects (Chapter V), prepared by Professor Darroch, was submitted to the meeting. After full discussion, the following was adopted :—

I.—General.

1. All persons, other than holders of the general certificate, must undergo a course of professional training, theoretical and practical, extending over a period of three terms of ten weeks each (October to June, or April to March).

2. In the case of holders of the general certificate, the period of professional training may be reduced to one term of ten weeks.

3. The professional training must be taken at a date subsequent to passing the final examination for a degree, or its equivalent, as specified in article 43 of the Regulations for the training of teachers. Students who have included any one part of the professional subjects in their degree course will not, as a rule, be required to repeat such subjects during their year of professional training.

4. The fee for the professional course (exclusive of fees for attendance at University courses of study) shall be fixed at £10. In the case of a student already holding the general certificate, the fee shall be £5.

II.—Subjects of Theoretical Instruction.

The course of professional training shall include—

(1) Attendance at an approved course of instruction in personal and school hygiene, to extend over a period of two terms of at least ten weeks each, and to include not less than 30 and not more than 50 hours' instruction.

(2) Attendance at approved courses in psychology, logic and ethics, extending over one year, and including at least 150 hours' instruction in these subjects. Attendance at an approved course in experimental and observational psychology shall form an integral part of this course.

(3) Attendance at an approved course in the principles and history of education, extending over two terms of at least ten weeks each, and covering at least 100 hours' instruction on the subject.

(4) Attendance at a course of lectures on present-day problems, including consideration of the secondary school systems of other countries. The course to cover at least 20 hours' instruction.

(5) Attendance at a course of lectures (with demonstration and criticism lessons and seminary instruction) on the methods of teaching the particular subject or subjects for which the candidate claims recognition. The course to cover not less than 60 hours' instruction.

III.—Practical Training.

(6) This course shall extend over the whole of the year of training, and shall include not less than 150 hours (5 hours per week) spent in studying—(*a*) The organization of intermediate and secondary schools; (*b*) Visits to various types of schools; (*c*) Practical teaching, of which 50 hours during a period of ten weeks must be spent in teaching in one of the specially recognised schools.

Candidates who already hold the general certificate will, if approved by the provincial committee, be required to attend only course (5), and such part of the practical course (6) as may be determined by the provincial committee, provided that in every case attendance at a recognised school during a period of ten weeks and covering 50 hours will be required.

II.—THE TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS

BY

H. SHARP, M.A.

Director of Public Instruction.
Eastern Bengal and Assam.

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***THE following pages are selected from some studies of the St. Louis Exposition by Mr. H Sharp, late inspector of Schools in the Central Provinces and now Director of public Instructions in Eastern Bengal and Assam. Mr. Sharp was sent to St. Louis in May, 1904, with a general commission to visit the Exposition, to attend the meetings of the National Educational Association, and to describe whatever should appear to him of most interest as bearing, by way of comparison, on Indian Education.

THE TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

Prussian and American systems.

1. The training of teachers is in most countries a two-fold problem dealing with (*a*) elementary and (*b*) secondary teachers. Opinions are still divided regarding the precise organisation of normal schools and colleges, and the course of studies (how far practical, how far theoretic, etc.) best adapted for these two classes of students. Concerning general qualifications a greater unanimity is observable. As an excellent example of the difference of method employed in the two cases, the arrangements existing in Prussia are sketched in Appendices A and B.* In sharp contrast with these are added some notes on training institutions in the States of New York and Massachusetts (Appendices C and D), from which it will be gathered that the system pursued in America is comparatively confused and amorphic. This arises from the fact that, while on the one hand normal schools have been driven to enlarge their curricula so as to make provision for teachers in high schools, so on the other hand colleges have endeavoured "to meet the needs of the people by extending their courses to include the preparation of teachers for elementary schools."† Now that it has been decided in India to extend the system of training and to improve that prescribed for secondary teachers, a consideration of the Prussian and of these (fairly typical) American systems may prove useful. The one exhibits an established and orderly plan, in which the

* These appendices largely consist of an abridged translation made respectively from *Bestimmungen* (Prussian Minister of Education, 1st July 1901) and *Ordnung der Prüfung für das Lehramt an höheren Schulen in Preussen*, 15th March 1904.

† "The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States," by Professor G. W. A. Luckey, page 63; hereafter referred to as "Luckey."

candidate for elementary posts undergoes a long period of preparation, of which the first three years aim at consolidating and enlarging his general knowledge, the second three years at instilling into him the principles of pedagogy, and at instructing him on methodology and practice, while a long probationary period gives proof of his actual teaching capability; in the case of would-be secondary teachers, a university career and private study fit them for a general examination in philosophy, pedagogy, German literature, religion and certain electives, while the period of practical training is limited to two years, one spent (generally) in a secondary school, the Principal of which is peculiarly fitted to give instruction in methodology, school management and the practice of teaching; the second in an ordinary secondary school working (sometimes with a small salary) as a master under supervision. The other presents us with a set of confused (one might almost say provisional) systems, which, however, perhaps owing to their elasticity and the intermingling of varied elements, produce versatile and highly efficient teachers (more efficient, some consider, than those produced under the Prussian plan, who, by reason of excessive drilling in practice, are apt to lose their originality). And these American systems gain special interest when considered in connexion with the unrest at present felt in educational circles in the States regarding the subject. However sharply contrasted these two examples may appear, the influence of Germany has been stronger than that of other European countries in shaping the development of the professional training of teachers in America.* But American thought, while assimilating the best European traditions, is apt to perceive in their application new problems in the solution of which it pushes into the forefront of speculation.

The problem in India.

2. It must, however, be premised that the question in India is complicated by the language difficulty. We are not called upon merely to turn out two classes of teachers, the one fitted to give direct and categorical instruction to children in the formative age, the other capable of suggestion and guidance for youths during the stage of orientation. For we

* Luckey, page 48.

require three kinds of teachers—(1) elementary vernacular teachers for the primary and vernacular middle (or upper primary) grades; (2) teachers for the so-called Anglo-Vernacular middle schools, who, while pursuing the methods applicable to an elementary school, will be required to teach English in all classes and to use English as the general medium of instruction in the highest or two highest classes; (3) teachers thoroughly versed in English and in the methods proper for employment in high schools. This consideration, together with a study of Appendices A, B, C and D, suggests a few preliminary words as to organisation.

I. Organisation. (a) Division of institutions.

3. As indicated in the foregoing paragraph, the question of training in India is complicated by two dividing lines—that of language and that of method. In organising our normal schools and colleges, which of these lines is to be adopted? The Government of India appears to have declared in favour of language; paragraph 39 of the Supplement to the *Gazette of India*, March 12, 1904, sketches a training college, in which graduates will receive a one year's course in the principles and practice of teaching, presumably to fit them for posts in high schools, and others will undergo a two years' training, presumably with a view to holding appointments in middle schools and perhaps rising to those in high schools; paragraph 40 touches on normal schools—distinct institutions intended for vernacular teachers. The instruction for graduates is to be a university course culminating in a university degree; but it is not stated what shall be the precise connexion with the university.* Presumably an institution after the type of the Columbia University Teachers' College is contemplated. It may be noted that there is a strong tendency in America towards the complete dissociation of secondary teachers' training from that of elementary teachers, and the placing of the former task in the hands of the universities. This tendency has to some extent expressed itself in the founding of chairs or departments of pedagogy in the universities of Iowa, Missouri, etc. Professor Luckey's book, "The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States," is a clearly put argument in this direction. Owing

* This has since been defined in Universities' Regulations.

to its large staff, its library, its environment and its varied elements, a university appears highly adapted for instilling the more specialised knowledge and the psychological instruction desirable in high school teachers. A good example of the successful working of such a scheme is the University of California, which offers a pedagogic course, leading up to a teachers' certificate, and comprising not merely professional knowledge, but general instruction in natural science, mathematics, English, history, etc., and special instruction in the branch which the candidate expects to teach. As for practical teaching, it can be done either concurrently with, or subsequently to, such a course, in an ordinary high school. If such an arrangement were objected to in India, a compromise might be effected by establishing the training college close to, and in connexion with, the university (or rather, the arts college). Candidates desiring to graduate and at the same time to fit themselves for high school posts, would undergo a two or three years' course in the arts college, on the lines of that prescribed in the University of California. At the same time, or better still, for a year subsequent to this, they would practise in the model classes of the training college under proper supervision. The main work of the training college, meanwhile, would be the "extension, consolidation and revision" of the general studies of those who have undergone only a high school course, or at most passed the intermediate examination, together with their instruction in method and practice. Such a plan would give opportunity for reaction between the arts college and the training college; narrowness, both in teacher and pupil, would be avoided. The principal of the training college might at the same time be professor of pedagogy in the arts college. Normal schools for teachers in vernacular primary and middle schools would be entirely separate; and, of course, several would be needed for each province. Thus the two lines of demarcation would be retained—that of language and that of method; secondary teachers would be more cheaply produced; the staff and the time-table of the training college would not be hampered by a duality of tasks, perhaps incompatible, certainly difficult to combine; and the idea, which is steadily gaining ground in

America, of the separation of higher training and the entrusting of it to the universities, would be fulfilled.

(b) Co-operation of ordinary schools.

4. Another point illustrated by the training sections of various exhibits is the use made of ordinary schools—that is those not specially organised as training schools—in the preparation of teachers. This is sufficiently shown in the appendices. The Prussian secondary teacher spends the last two years of his training in schools, one of which is primarily, the other wholly, a mere high school with no special training staff. In the New York State, high schools, up to the number of one hundred and thirteen, are permitted to prepare teachers in addition to their ordinary educative duties. It is noteworthy that in Switzerland, too, where the utmost importance is attached to training, one-half of the institutions destined for this purpose are higher primary or secondary schools, in which candidates receive general instruction and attend special lectures on pedagogy. Mixed institutions of this type have come to be somewhat despised in India. Perhaps this is because they are confined (at least in my experience) to vernacular schools often possessed of an inferior staff, and have not, as in other countries, been extended to secondary institutions. Personally, I have always thought their work better than is usually estimated; and the retention of such a system in more highly educated countries might form a plea for their continued existence, possibly even for their extension to schools of a higher type, in India. In this connexion it is suggestive to note the special courses mapped out in some high schools of America for those proposing to adopt teaching as a profession. It is not meant by this that high schools should offer courses of psychology or applied pedagogy; this would be undesirable. But it is affirmed in a monograph on "The California System of training Elementary Teachers," that "it is being felt more and more in the State that the high school should not aim primarily to prepare for entrance to the university; that is its incidental function. It should rather make for the many-sided development of the adolescent in the direction of more effective and worthy manhood or womanhood along lines of general culture, with some specialisation along the line of special bent. When the high schools are permitted to give

greater prominence to real literary and English training, to the social and natural sciences, to arithmetic, music and art, and by methods that shall more generally provoke real thought as well as exercise memory, their graduates will be in much better condition to undertake normal school work proper. Normal schools must not be understood to be in the position of making any demands upon the constitution of high schools ; for the latter have already been too much hampered by such purely external considerations as that of preparation for the universities. But the truth remains that when the high school graduates stand closer to the demands of present day citizenship, character and mental equipment, it will be possible for the normal school to undertake their professional training far more effectively." All this may sound trite enough; but it is eminently true whether in California or in India, where the normal school superintendent so often complains that, in dealing with the material supplied him, he is trying to put square pegs into- round holes. The normal school must not be left to fight its battle alone. On the one hand the university may lend its broadening aid in shaping the secondary teacher; on the other hand, the high school or the upper primary school, even if not permitted directly to train, may yet indirectly, by offering more suitable courses, lighten the difficult task of the training institutions.

(c) Postponement of special training; examinations, etc.

5. Yet another point, which will receive notice under the heading "Curricula," is the postponement of special instruction and practical teaching to a late period. A reference to the tables given in Appendices A and B will sufficiently show the preference for this arrangement; in the four-year course in New York State, method is begun in the third, practical teaching in the fourth year. In the same way there is a tendency to split up examinations into a general and a special test to be passed at different stages. This is suposed to prevent cram; but such devices always appear open to suspicion. Perhaps a more useful hint is contained in the postponement of final examinations in the case of Prussian elementary teachers till the candidate has held a post for some years. The same is done in Switzerland. It is most important, especially in isolated schools in India, that the teacher should not

be allowed to lose touch with his training and fall into a state of vegetation during the early years of his tenure of office. A suggestive move in this direction is the sending out of teachers trained in the Brown and Nebraska Universities as probationers either with or without pay (see paragraph 10).

II. Curricula. (*a*) Needs of elementary and secondary teachers.

6. Passing from organisation to the study of the curriculum, we notice, in the examples given, the great value set upon method and practice, even for aspirants to the higher grades of teachers. Nevertheless, American faith in psychology is strong; and a tendency is now apparent largely to eliminate the practical and empirical elements from the course for secondary teachers and to substitute more and more of theory and principle in their place. The reasons for this sense of the need of more thorough differentiation between the courses for elementary and secondary teachers are to be sought partly in the qualifications of the candidates, partly in the needs of the pupils with whom they will have to deal. The elementary teacher has a limited ground-work of knowledge; he has not been fitted by a university career for the appreciation and application of general principles; he must be guided largely by rules of thumb and devices of method. The secondary teacher possesses a greater breadth of knowledge and (presumably) a higher power of applying abstract truths; his philosophic habit of mind permits him to rely more safely upon introspection; his originality and freshness of thought would be merely checked by too close an adherence to any detailed prescription of method. On the other hand, the elementary teacher will be called upon to manage children whose age and forms of thought are far removed from his own; he must, if his work is to be a success, study the child and learn to know, forestall and sympathise with his mental condition and limitations. The secondary teacher is not confronted with this difficulty; those with whom he will come in contact are of an age and a mode of thought more closely akin to his own. The child in the formative stage requires concrete facts, direct instruction, plain and imperative discipline. The youth in the stage of orientation requires power of arranging facts, instruction by suggestion, a reasonable discipline based on compromise. The course of training suitable

for an elementary teacher should therefore aim, not at great width of knowledge, but at a large amount of practice, at general methods of teaching all elementary subjects, at a uniform, concrete and empirical methodology in each particular subject, at "dodges" for stimulating interest, memory, apperception, etc., at the psychology and physiology of childhood. Against this, the course laid down for secondary teachers should comprise wider general knowledge with some highly specialised knowledge, and less practice; general principles and special methods; theoretical and scientific methodology, not categorically presented, but of sufficient variety to permit of choice and adaptation; studies calculated to enable him to produce enthusiasm and habits of orderly thinking in his pupil; the psychology and physiology of adolescence and manhood.* It may appear that the accomplishments required in an elementary teacher demand the higher attainments; and American universities and training colleges actually offer elaborate courses for kindergartners. However this may be, the strong line of demarcation exists; and envy is expressed at its full recognition in Germany, while at the same time American thought appears to go slightly beyond that of Germany in assigning their proper places and values to psychology and methodology.

(*b*) Psychology *versus* Methodology.

7. It may be said that all this has been recognised long ago in India, where, even when elementary and secondary teachers have been trained under the same roof, the methods applied have been totally distinct; the former have extended their studies beyond the primary standard, have read some simple book on method and school management, and have taught in the practising school; the latter have received instruction in the history and theory of education. The truth is, the divergence has been made too great. A juster view will be found in the proposals of the Government of India. "For the graduates the course of instruction will be chiefly directed towards imparting to them a knowledge of the principles which underlie the art of teaching, and some degree of technical skill in the practice of the art. * * * * For the others

* See Luckey, *seriatim*.

the course should embrace the extension, consolidation and revision of their general studies; but the main object should be to render them capable teachers, and no attempt should be made to prepare them for any higher external examination."* In a word, the study of method should form an important item in both cases. But it should be differently presented. For the elementary teacher such instruction must be concrete and categorical. He must consolidate and rehearse his general knowledge; but as a teacher, no longer as a pupil. No division should be made between his general studies and his study of method. It will be seen from the appendices how fully this is recognised. The point is best brought out in the brief description of methods pursued at the Bridgewater State Normal School (Mass.) given in Appendix C. The subjects of the public (elementary) school curriculum are included as a part of the training; but they are to be studied from the educational point of view; "the student must think the object as the learner thinks it, he must also think the process by which the learner knows and he must think the means the teacher is to use to cause the learner to take the steps of this process." How this is done, a reference to the appendix will serve to disclose. Secondly, the instruction must be categorical; one method, and that the best available, must be shown; devices and rules of thumb must be insisted on. This does not mean that the future teacher is to be tied down hand and foot as regards his methods. Any method, however cut and dried, contains some scope for originality and variations; the point is that the student is probably not capable of arriving at a good method without thoroughly detailed guidance. Nor does it mean that the teacher is to remain in the dark regarding the principles which dictate the proper treatment of subjects; a short and very simple treatise on child psychology will suffice to indicate to him the general laws underlying the particular rules. For the secondary teacher, on the other hand, the instruction in method must take a more theoretical and suggestive turn. He is more capable of choosing from among the suggestions laid before him, shaping them to his original bent and applying them to practical ends. But there

* Supplement to the *Gazette of India*, March 12, 1904, paragraph 39.

is always the danger that an abstract study of the history and principles of pedagogy may pass entirely over the head of the student and never become real thought in his mind—thought, that is, in the sense of influencing action. Two means are possible for obviating this difficulty; the one is the pursuit by the student of a more practically cultural, a less academic, course of instruction during his high school and college careers; the other is a more judicious presentation of the pedagogic subjects. In this latter connexion, I have found that in at least one training institution in India the large amount of theoretical and discursive reading prescribed was not calculated to make a sufficient impression on the student. Let us discard general histories of pedagogy, and substitute either a strictly eclectic survey with the points of permanent value strongly emphasised (see Appendix A); or, perhaps better still, a single work, or selections from several works, of some great teacher (say Rousseau, or Pestalozzi, or the Herbartian school) with good critical and explanatory notes. Let psychology be freed from formalism and technicalities, so that the student may regard it not merely as a science but as the introduction to a practical art. Let some sound work dealing with the application of principles, such as McMurray's "Elements of General Method,"* be added to the course. Let the value of practice under supervision never be neglected.†

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* See Bibliography.

† I cannot resist quoting some figures given by Professor Luckey which bear in an interesting way on this point.

As to qualifications and general training so strong in America is the appreciation of the different requirements of elementary and secondary teachers, that out of 100 school superintendents questioned on the subject :—

100	52	preferred	normal school graduates (without college training) as *elementary* teachers.
	44	„	college graduates with a professional training „ „
	4	„	„ „ (even if untrained professionally) „ „
100	84	„	„ „ with professional training as *secondary teachers.*
	10	„	„ „ without „ „ „
	6	„	normal school graduates (without college training) „ „

As to the courses prescribed for training by universities, figures were taken in the case of 20 representative universities that were among the first to establish departments of education; these showed that time is bestowed on the various subjects in the following order :—(*a*) History of education, (*b*) practical work (including method, management, etc.), (*c*) theory, (*d*) psychology, in the ratio of 994, 735, 412, and 397·5, these figures representing actual hours of teaching per half year. Owing, however, to their partial inclusion under other heads, the figures for psychology, and for practical work (which is here used in a highly comprehensive sense) are lower than they should be. These statistics serve to shew the predominance of theoretical instruction, together with the fact that, even in higher training, the subjects of school organization, management, method, observation and practice teaching (all included under practical work) are not omitted. (Luckey, pages 175 and 157.)

(c) Psychology *versus* Child study

8. Closely related to the topic of the preceding paragraph is that of the relationship and respective values of psychology and child study. I heard it asked in all seriousness how psychology, a science, can affect teaching, an art. Again, I heard it argued that psychology must precede child study if only for the same reason which makes it easier to spell cat than kitten. The question as to how far child psychology can take the place of adult psychology formed the subject of a very interesting paper read by Dr. G. Stanley Hall (a known authority on the former subject) at the National Educational Association meeting. I had the pleasure of hearing this paper and the subsequent discussion. Some of the most striking arguments were as follows:—

(1) Child study has the advantage of dealing with the body and with hygiene.

(2) It opens up to the teacher a number of opportunities by supplying him with the knowledge necessary for recognising them. This enables him to get "a working majority of the child's soul" into its study.

(3) It is closely connected with methodology.

(4) It enables the teacher to recognise those periods of nascent power, and, again, those of weakness, both moral and mental, through which all children pass, and teaches him how to make use of the one and allowance for the other.

(5) It gives valuable insight into developmental relations and shows at once the necessity for and the method of cultivating the mental faculties during the apparently useless stages of their growth. This is one of those points where child study is aptly illustrated by animal study. Thus, we might think the tadpole's tail a foolish appendage (since it is dispensed with when the animal becomes a frog); but it is of infinite value to the tadpole in the present, in that it enables him "to get around after his food," and to the frog in the future since it aids in conveying blood to the rudimentary legs. In the same manner, a

> conscientious but unsympathetic teacher might be shocked at, and attempt to eradicate, a child's anthropomorphic idea of God; the result would very likely be the inability of the child in later years to form any idea of God at all.

It was also argued (by the principal of the State Normal School, Worcester, Mass.) that adult psychology tends to give a prejudice for a certain theory which may, in consequence, be pressed too hard; that it emphasises the qualitative resemblances that make up humanity, rather than the quantitative differences existent in individuals; and that normal school students are lacking in the age, experience and introspective power which would enable them to grasp its lessons. These arguments are sufficiently plausible; but we must be careful to see whether the advocates of child study themselves are not permitting their theory to run away with them. Surely child study includes and depends on an important section of psychology. For no general work on the latter subject ever fails to deal with mental growth in the child—the development of sense, of attuition, of perception, of conception and of reasoning. And what is the difference between this and much of child study?* Simply that the mode of presenting the same facts is formal in psychology, practical in child study; and that, while the former tends (wrongly) to deal with the mental faculties in the abstract, the latter (rightly) examines them as conditioned by, and inextricably connected with, bodily states and actions, treats thought in its relation to the structure of the brain, to the nervous system, to motor activities, and hence reviews the whole physical being and environment of the child. This, at least, is what I understand by child study. It is that science which, when practically applied, will enable us (1) so far to realise the mental condition of the young, that we can present them with the proper subjects of study at the proper time and in the proper manner; (2) to know the physical conditions (as regards food, fresh air, clothes, exercise, etc.) which are best for children and so will best promote

* I am throughout using the term "child study" to denote a body of facts to be laid before a student, not a series of original research experiments. The two meanings are sometimes confused with puerile results.

mental growth and activity; (3) to recognise in a class as a whole and in the case of normal children the symptoms of fatigue or of peculiar alertness, to guard against the one and seize the opportunity offered by the other; (4) to anticipate and to forestall those individual accesses of moral and mental weakness from which even normal and healthy chidren are apt to suffer; (5) to perceive and to make allowance for abnormal cases—mental defect, nervousness, stammering, short sight, deafness, chorea, hysteria, insufficient food or undesirable home influences. Taken in this broad sense, child study not merely is essential for every elementary teacher, but contains practically all the psychology which it is necessary for him to imbibe. The subject is one which might well receive more attention in India. I do not mean to say that primary school masters should be called upon to perform elaborate experiments in fatigue, such as were described in the Japanese and in other exhibits; I do not mean that every, or even that any, school should be supplied with an ergograph, a sphygmometer or an æsthesiometer. But I do mean that masters should, by simple tests (such as the extension of the arms in a line with the shoulders in front), be able to test the physical condition of pupils; that teachers (and those responsible for framing courses as well) should be rendered incapable of committing such egregious blunders as exercising the fine muscles of the child's fingers in kindergarten occupations; that the study of method should be illuminated by a knowledge of childish modes of thought and of opportunity; above all, that the teacher should learn to regard his charges as living organisms, not as "show-wares turned out by a curriculum machine." Simple works on the physical side of this subject are Warner's "Study of Children" and Rowe's "Physical Nature of the Child." As to its more psychological aspect, McMurray's book on general method has already been mentioned.*

Suggested courses.

9. What (to recapitulate) are suggested by the foregoing remarks as suitable courses for elementary and for secondary teachers? (1) For elementary teachers, whether of vernacular,

* See Bibliography.

primary or of Anglo-Vernacular middle (in reality more elementary than secondary) schools:—

(i) The consolidation (and, in the case of those who have passed only the primary standard, some slight extension) of their general knowledge, with special reference to the course they will have to teach. These subjects should be gone over from the point of view of method, as described in paragraph 7; and the instruction should take the form of model lessons, criticism lessons and practice teaching, as well as recitations. Such a course will provide for minute and categorical explanation of the methods proper to each subject.

(ii) A very simple text-book on general method (with a minimum of applied psychology) and school management.

(iii) A very simple text-book on child study (in its more physical aspect).

(iv) Some special initiation (for primary teachers at least) into the methods of the kindergarten.

Needless to say, physical training should form a part of this, or of any, teacher's course. (2) For secondary (high school) teachers:—

(i) A simple treatise on the psychology of adolescence and manhood (stripped, so far as possible, of formalism).

(ii) An eclectic sketch of, or (better) a special study in, the history of education.

(iii) A work on general method, such as McMurray's.

(iv) Child study with special reference to the period of adolescence.

(v) Model lessons and practice teaching in the subjects with which the candidate will have to deal.

It is, of course, presumed that the candidate, even if not a graduate, has undergone at least two years of university study, and has not only a good groundwork of general knowledge but also higher qualifications in some special branch which will form his special subject when he becomes a member of a high

school staff. If the latter is not the case, then he may have to continue attendance at lectures on that subject. If, as has been suggested, the training college is situated in proximity to an arts college, still more if, as may seem desirable, the university actually undertakes the more theoretical part of his training, this can easily be arranged.

(*d*) Order and method of secondary teachers' training.

10. But, in the case of secondary teachers, a mere recapitulation of subjects does not end the matter. Were faculties of education to be established in the universities, and a two or three years' course at arts college arranged to give the candidate his general and also his theoretical professional preparation (practice being postponed for a subsequent year in the training college or in a suitable high school), the question arises whether the professional should be given concurrently with the general instruction or not. Following out the principles which are considered to underlie the training of secondary (as contrasted with elementary) teachers, we should reply that professional instruction, even if concurrent with, should be separate from, general instruction; and Professor Luckey considers that its postponement till after general teaching is concluded will probably allow of greater concentration. The best examples bear this out. Again, what is the method of treatment to be pursued? Here Professor Luckey has some admirable remarks,* of which a very brief summary may prove useful. Presuming the ends aimed at in training to be terseness and clarity of expression, originality and grasp of thought, many-sidedness of insight gained in a short time, correction of idiosyncrasies, alertness and the possession of a good model for teaching, he declares in favour of instruction by topics rather than by text-books as best calculated to attain these ends. The lesson should take the form neither of lectures nor of recitations, but should be a mixture of these two with the "laboratory method." This is a method of development, of collaborative research, approximating to the *Seminar* method of German universities. The topic and an outline having been given, and an assignment of references made, by the lecturer, the pupils work out each his own part of the subject. Thus:—

*Luckey, pages 193—213.

(1) The whole history of education cannot be gone through by each student individually, save in a summary manner; and that is useless. Nor can a good idea be obtained from any one book. Let one student study one period, another another; let the periods sometimes overlap. Finally, let the students compare results.

(2) The course in psychology and child study should make the student read the best literature on the subject, learn tendencies in human nature by introspection and study of pupils and apply the knowledge thus gained. Each student may go through a general outline; but each should also pursue research in some special branch.

(3) Methodology should comprise a critical study of various methods and reasons for their change or abandonment, and examination and criticism of methods now in use. From these points each student should work up his own particular subject, and at the end of the semester present his results in a clear, logical form to the other students. (An excellent example is worked out on pages 202—206 of Luckey's book.) Finally will come lectures by members of the faculty, delivered at a time when the students' minds are best prepared to profit by them.

As to practice teaching, Professor Luckey instances two different methods—that of the Brown University which, when their instructional work is over, sends out its students (either with or without a salary) to work in distant schools under supervision; and that of Nebraska University, where practice is concurrent with instruction, students teaching twice a week for two hours at a time in neighbouring schools. A year of practice subsequent to instruction, spent in a good school or in the practising classes of the training college, would seem the preferable plan. Of course this whole scheme presupposes that universities are to undertake the training of secondary teachers; it also presupposes an amount of acumen and enthusiasm in the

candidates which some will perhaps not be ready to admit. Still, it is highly suggestive.

11. "Every possible care," the Government of India has affirmed, "should be taken to maintain a connexion between the training college and the school." This idea of keeping the teachers in touch with a central guiding authority and with one another is thoroughly congenial to the American spirit. Three holidays a year are sometimes allowed to enable teachers to visit other schools. Superintendents of schools and professors may also have one year in seven (a "Sabbatical year") for the pursuit of studies elsewhere in the States and abroad. Various conferences for teachers are held, such as that at Syracuse in New York State. And there is the great annual meeting of the National Educational Association. In 1904 this gathering, which lasted four days, took place within the St. Louis Exposition buildings. I was much struck with the enthusiasm of teachers of all grades, from the elementary up to the college professor, who flocked to attend it. The variety of the subjects treated, and the great diversity of personalities who took part in the debates, added interest and width to the proceedings. In the large morning meetings, besides the reading of papers by authorities on education, I heard addresses by an admiral, by Booker Washington, by an Italian Cardinal. Dr. W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education of the United States, was in constant attendance. But the afternoon meetings, when the association divided up into departments (kindergarten and elementary, secondary, higher education, normal schools, manual training, music, art, business, child study, etc.), were of a still more useful and enlightening character. This is an ideal which, for physical reasons alone, cannot yet be realised in India. But it serves to show the great importance attached to such organisations in America. III. Conferences.

12. The chief practical points suggested in this section may be briefly recapitulated:—

The method of training to be adopted for secondary teachers is different from that suitable for elementary teachers; the former is more theoretical, the latter more practical.

There is a tendency to entrust the training of secondary teachers to the universities. It seems right that the great educational force gathered in a good arts college should be brought to bear on this important task.

Should such a system be adopted in India, faculties and courses of education would then be established in the universities, and classes opened in (say) the chief arts college of each province. A useful adjunct would be a training college, situated close at hand, connected with the university and utilised for the practice teaching of graduate candidates, but primarily busied with the training of Anglo-Vernacular middle school teachers, whose task will be of an elementary rather than a secondary character.

At the same time, high schools might co-operate by opening courses of a more practically cultural nature for would-be teachers and others.

The courses proper for each kind of teacher are:—

(1) *For elementary teachers*—

The consolidation (and sometimes extension) of their general knowledge, now presented by way of methodology (detailed and categorical), and in connexion with practice teaching.

General method.

Child study.

Kindergarten for primary teachers.

(2) *For secondary teachers*—

Simple psychology.

History of education (eclectic or special).

General method.

Child study (adolescence).

Model lessons and practice teaching.

For secondary teachers a method of collaborative research in set topics may prove useful.

It is presumed that secondary candidates have already received a general education, and special instruction in some

subject, at the arts college. Thus, their full course would be:—

First year. In arts college.—General education, and a special subject.

Second year. In arts college.—General education, and perhaps some theory of education.

Third year. In arts college.—The professional course sketched above.

Fourth year. In training college, or in some suitable high school.—Practice teaching.

This would form a special university course, leading up to a degree. Those who had graduated in the ordinary way and then chosen the teaching profession, would presumably be expected to continue through the third and fourth years of study.

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APPENDIX A.

Training of Elementary Teachers in Prussia.

Elementary teachers receive training in (1) a *Präparandenanstalt* and (2) a *Seminar*. In each three years are commonly spent. The *Präparandenanstalt* works on the knowledge already acquired in the elementary school, widening, deepening and unifying it; it also adds new subjects (such as book-keeping, mensuration and orthography) The *Seminar* continues the subjects taught in the *Präparandenanstalt*, with special reference to method, and gradually initiates the student into a knowledge of teaching both theoretical and practical. To make room for this second task, instruction (save as regards method) in mathematics, natural history and geography ceases with the second year; should, however, a student fail in the first of these subjects, he is subjected a second time to the second years' course, being thus delayed a year; if he fail in either of the others, he must undergo a special examination in them at his final test.

Thus, in the *Präparandenanstalt*, the study of the mother-tongue comprises :—in literature, fables, fairy tables, myths and legends; ballads and lyric poetry, and prose extracts on history, geography and natural science; more difficult poetry; Schiller's *Glocke* and *Wilhelm Tell*, and prose-pieces on history, biography, etc. ;—in grammar, the simple sentence; the compound sentence; etymology and general syntax ;—in general exercises, reproductions in class of what has been read, essays of varying difficulty at home. History comprises :—German history up to 1648; German history up to date, with special reference to Prussia; elements of Greek and Roman history, especially as regards the civilisation of those peoples. Mathematics includes all common arithmetic, with more of the commercial type than is usually taught, book-keeping, mensuration and surveying. Natural science consists of a knowledge (1) of common plants and animals, (2) of simple physics, the states matter, principles of mechanics, and sound. Drawing and a certain amount of music are insisted on.

In the *Seminar*, grammar is not specifically prescribed; the reading course comprises a wide range of difficult subjects :—introduction to the study of the great German epics, translations from Homer, descriptive prose, letters, the history of civilisation, art and literature; German authors of the 16th and 17th centuries, lives of Klopstock, Lessing, Herder, Goethe, Schiller, together with portions of their works; contemporaries of Goethe and Schiller, *Wallenstein*, a (translated) drama of Shakespeare, the prose of Herder and Schiller. Essays and (in the last year) method are also insisted on. The same high standard is attained in other subjects; thus, light and electricity, mineralogy and the application of stones and metals in industries, and the means of nutriment, are prescribed in the second year. In all cases the course ends with lessons on method. And more and more time is devoted to the theory and practice of teaching. This (together with the distribution of hours to subjects) is shown in the following Table :—

Table of subjects prescribed in Präparandenanstalt *and* Seminar, *giving number of hours a week devoted to each subject.*

Subject.	Präparandenanstalt.			Seminar.			Remarks.
	III.	II.	I.	III.	II.	I.	
Pedagogy	..	..	..	3	3	3	
Lessons on teaching	..	..	..	..	4	4	Held in the hours devoted to various subjects.
Practical teaching in the school.	..	..	..	..	..	4—6	
Religion	4	4	3	3	4	3	Method.
German	5	5	5	5	5	3	Method.
Foreign languages	3	3	3	2	2	2	
History	2	2	3	2	2	2	
Mathematics	5	5	5	5	5	1	
Natural Science	2	4	4	4	4	1	Method.
Geography	2	2	2	3	3	1	
Writing	2	2	1	..	..	..	
Drawing	2	2	2	2	2	1	
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3	3	3	Method.
Music	3	4	5	4	4	4	For each subject, *e.g.*, vocal music, violin, organ, etc.
Agriculture	..	1 ..	..	1	1 1	..	
Total	34	37	37	38	43	33—35	

An interesting point in this table is the inclusion of agriculture—theoretical and practical instruction in the culture of garden-plants, vegetables, fruit trees, crops, sericulture, and agriculture. But we have here to deal with the course in training, which, starting with pedagogy, next takes up concrete instruction, and finally ends in practical teaching.

1. Pedagogy. (*a*) The first nine months are employed in psychology—the mental development of the child and the principal phenomena and laws of mental activity. This gives a basis for learning the art of teaching. (*b*) Next comes the history of pedagogy, with special reference to the post-Reformation era, and to elementary education. Students are introduced to the principal works (read in extracts); the course must be strictly eclectic, those tenets only of each author being emphasised which are of permanent value for application. (*c*) The last subject closes with a sketch of the present state of pedagogy which naturally leads to a consideration of existing rules and regulations and of the problems which at present beset the science.

2. Lessons on teaching. These begin in the second year, and are of two kinds :—(*a*) Model lessons delivered by members of the staff; (*b*) *Lehrproben*, or lessons prepared and delivered at most twice a week by each student in religion, German and mathematics. The other students are present (and these are, presumably, what we should call "criticism-lessons"). These hours (in the 2nd year) are taken out of the times prescribed for the different subjects taught.

3. Practical teaching begins in the third year (Class I). Each student teaches in the practising school from four to six hours a week in religion, German, arithmetic and one other subject. The students are changed from class to class each four months; and, at the same time, an examination by the whole staff (attended by all students of Class I) of the classes taken by the students is held, and the teaching work thus appraised. Each week the class-master criticises the past work of the candidate and gives instructions for the week to come. One of the practising school masters gives weekly instruction on school management and discipline, the peculiarities of children and their proper treatment. Attendance at lessons given by other pupils is entailed upon those who are weak in those particular subjects; and the method of conducting initial lessons in the mother-tongue, &c., is learnt by constant attendance of this kind. Instruction is given in the use of equipment and apparatus.

As regards qualifications and tests, it should be noted that the candidate for a *Präparandenanstalt* must have gone through the elementary school course, and have satisfied the Principal of the institution of his fitness to be admitted. At the end of the course he passes a leaving examination in religion, history, geography, natural science, a modern language and writes a theme on a given subject. This admits him to the *Seminar* at the close of his course, in which he again passes a leaving examination conducted by a commission over which a Royal Commissioner presides. The written part consists of an essay on a pedagogic or a literary subject; essays on a religious and on a historical subject; a translation from a foreign language into German; and a musical test for those specialising in music. The oral test (which is held before the commission) consists of questions on pedagogy, religion, German, history and a foreign language; and on the methods of teaching various subjects in an elementary school. No test in actual teaching is now prescribed at this stage.

The candidate who has passed now undergoes two to five years of probationary work in an elementary school; during this period he receives salary, but is not in the department; nor does such service count towards pension. He has then to pass the "second teachers' tests," which consists of an essay (four hours) on a pedagogic subject; an oral examination in questions of method; and a practical test of teaching power. On passing this examination, the candidate is eligible for permanent Government service.

APPENDIX B.

Practical Training of Secondary Teachers in Prussia.

The candidates for this course have previously passed through the nine years' course of a high school, and at least a three years' university course ending in a *Staats-Prüfung*. Their preparation is completed in a regular training institution or a high school (*Gymnasium*, *Realgymnasium* or *Real-* and *Oberreal-Schule*) recognised as possessing facilities for teaching method, owing to the interest taken by the principal in this kind of work; and in an ordinary high school, where they undergo a year of probationary experience in teaching. The period of practical training thus consists of (1) the *Seminarjahr*, in which attention is directed to principles of pedagogy, methodology, school management, model lessons and criticism lessons; and (2) the *Probejahr*, during which the candidates take active part in the teaching and general life of a secondary school under proper guidance and supervision.

Further details (abridged in translation from *Ordnung der Prüfung für das Lehramt an höheren Schulen in Preussen*) are added concerning the work of these two years.

A. *1st year* (*Seminarjahr*).—(*a*) The principal of the high school gives instruction in the following subjects :—

The principles of education as applicable to secondary schools and to the subjects taken up by the candidates, with special reference to important authorities on "the new pedagogy."

Rules for the preparation of lessons; criticisms on lessons taken by the students (both with personal and with general application); principles of discipline largely with reference to individual models.

Brief revision of the technique of school management (such as time-tables, regulations for examinations, new discoveries in pedagogy, apparatus, principles of school-hygiene, etc.).

Introductory work (during the last three months) by each student on a concrete pedagogical subject chosen by the principal.

(*b*) In close connexion with this course of instruction, practical training of the students is carried on. This consists first in attending the lessons ordinarily given in classes by the principal or such of his assistants as he may depute; secondly, in attempts made by the students themselves in various subjects. These last begin in the second quarter and comprise tasks (at first limited as to scope and time, afterwards more extensive), for which the students have to make a written preparation (so far as the subject allows) according to the instructions of the superintending teacher, who (unless the principal orders otherwise) remains present during the lessons given by the students. The principal arranges these lessons, which must occupy two to three hours a week for each student.

The candidates are given opportunities of becoming acquainted with the use of apparatus for such subjects as natural science and geography.

They are also made to take part in games, gymnastic teaching, school expeditions, &c.; attendance at training schools and elementary schools is encouraged.

Throughout the course, explanations are given of the arrangement of classes, of the ends in view during education in general, and especially in teaching the prescribed subjects, and attention is called, both during lessons and during discussions, to individual faults of the students in handling the classes, etc.

The students attend the regular examinations of the school-classes, and are liable to be called on for information concerning such of the pupils as have been under their instruction.

At the close of this period (four weeks before the end) the principal and his staff draw up a schedule (as in the *Reifeprüfung* of high schools) regarding the progress and pedagogical ability of the candidates. This is forwarded to the Provincial Board of Education together with the applications, in which candidates are permitted to state their choice as to locality during the year of probation—a matter in which, whenever possible, the Board complies. The Board likewise intimates to such candidates as are characterised by the principal as unfitted for the profession, to abandon this career.

B. *2nd year* (*Probejahr*).—The Provincial Board of Education now directs the candidates to proceed to various secondary schools (unprovided with facilities for training). A nine-year-course school may be supplied with, at most, three; a school of shorter course with two, students. The principals are informed of the success or the faults of the different students.

The candidates are now entrusted, each according to his ability, with more important and continuous tasks in instruction, and give lessons (without stipend) for eight or ten hours a week. They do this under the guidance of the principal and of the members of the staff upon whose classes they practise. The organisation rests with the principal, who portions out the hours so as to give all students practice in different subjects and in different classes. Those who have a taste for teaching science and geography undergo

special instruction under a chosen teacher with reference to experiment and apparatus.

It is impressed on the staff that the object of these lessons is the improvement of the students, not the lightening of their own work. They make the students acquainted with the disciplinary methods of the school. They must keep in mind the character which each student has brought from his year of training. They must often look in upon their lessons and point out errors; this must be done constantly in the first quarter, at least twice a month in the remainder of the year; after delivery of the lesson they should give the students necessary criticism.

Monthly conferences of the staff are held to discuss the progress of students.

Some students are entrusted with the tutorship of a few pupils, and must make their observations on them to their class-master and receive his advice.

Students must attend as listeners at certain class-lessons prescribed by the principal, also at ordinary examinations and conferences of teachers; and they must record their opinions (under revision by the class-master) when censure is passed on any pupils in their charge.

If the exigencies of the school require it, students may, with sanction of the Provincial Board, teach up to twenty hours a week, receiving a proportionate salary. In this case they possess full right of voting at conferences of teachers.

Towards the end of the year, the students send to the principal a report on their own pedagogic occupations.

At the end of the *Probjahr*, the principal sends to the Provincial Board a report similar to that submitted at the end of the *Seminarjahr*. The report made by the student (as just mentioned) accompanies this.

The Provincial Board now takes into consideration the reports made on each candidate during each of his two years of training, together with the judgment of the Inspector upon the progress made during this whole period, and grants or withholds the license to teach, adding grounds for its action and extracts from the reports.

A certificate is granted with remarks on the student's progress under training and capabilities; it must be produced on all applications for posts.

APPENDIX C.

Training arrangements in New York State.

Training facilities in the New York State are considered particularly excellent. The study of them is complicated by local variations in requirements and courses, even in the State institutions. An outline of the system is given in as typical a fashion as possible.

The institutions are :—

(1) Training classes, attached to high schools, limited in number to 113, giving a year's course of instruction in purely professional subjects to pupils who have completed a portion of the high school course. The examination leads to a diploma for teaching in small elementary schools, valid for three years, after which the license must be renewed upon examination.

(2) Training schools, which are separate institutions, admitting, upon an entrance examination, students of 17 years of age, who are high school graduates or the equivalent. Here, too, the course is purely professional. The final examination confers a diploma permitting the holder to teach in an elementary school (primary and grammar grade for three years, after which it can be

renewed for periods of ten years if the holder has had a minimum successful experience of two years under the certificate.

(3) Eleven State normal schools, which admit pupils on an examination or the high school diploma, include general as well as professional subjects in their courses, and qualify their graduates to teach in all schools of the State for life.

(4) The Normal College at Albany, admitting accepted candidates of 18 years of age, offering purely professional courses of one to two years, and conferring on those who complete these courses licenses to teach in all schools of the State for life, and in certain cases degrees of Bachelor of Pedagogy.

A State Normal School is here described :—

THE STATE NORMAL AND TRAINING SCHOOL, COURTLAND.

Appointments for admission are made by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, subject to a required examination or certificate, upon the recommendation of the several School Commissioners and City Superintendents of Schools. Special injunctions are laid upon these officers to represent to likely candidates the advantages of the career and the needs of the profession. Each candidate must be at least 16 years of age, and must either hold a recognised diploma, or submit to an entrance examination, held by Commissioners and Superintendents, and comprising arithmetic, geography, grammar, composition, orthography, American history and penmanship.

The courses of study are fourfold, being arranged in two groups :—(*a*) two of four years each for such as are not high school graduates, but have entered the Normal School by entrance examination; (*b*) two of two years each for high school graduates, provided they do not merely possess the 48-Count Regents' diploma, but in addition, credentials showing that they have had certain specified periods of work in science, mathematics, history, English and æsthetics (for English course), and in these, together with Latin, Greek, French and German (for classical course). The reason for the disparity in the length of the courses is simply the different standards of proficiency attained by the two classes of candidates. There are also two special courses :—(*c*) the Normal Primary and Kindergarten Course, and (*d*) the Special Kindergarten Course.

The courses are detailed :—

Four-year Courses.

		English Course.	Classical Course.
FIRST YEAR.	FIRST TERM.	Biology I. Algebra I. Drawing I. Music I. Physical Training.	Biology I. Latin I. Drawing I. Music I. Physical Training.
	SECOND TERM.	Biology II. Rhetoric I. Algebra II. Reading.	Biology II. Latin II. Algebra II. Reading. Drawing II (½ term).

		English Course.	Classical Course.
SECOND YEAR.	First Term.	Geometry I. Physics I. Rhetoric II. Drawing II (½ term). Music II (½ term).	Geometry I. Physics I. Rhetoric II. Latin III. Greek or French I.
	Second Term.	English Literature I. Geometry II. General History II. Physics II.	Physics II, or Chemistry. Geometry II (½ term). General History I. Latin IV. Greek II, or French II, or German I.
THIRD YEAR.	First Term.	Chemistry. General History II. Elementary Geography Method (½ term). Psychology. General method (½ term). Primary method (½ term).	English Literature I. Latin V. Greek III, or French III, or German II. Psychology. General method (½ term). Primary method (½ term).
	Second Term.	Science methods (½ term). Physical Geography with methods. Elementary number methods (½ term). Language methods (½ term). English Literature II. Drawing methods (¼ term). Music methods (¼ term). Astronomy (½ term).	Science methods (½ term). Elementary Geography methods (½ term). Elementary number methods (½ term). Language methods (½ term). Civics (½ term). School Economy and School Law (½ term). Latin VI. Greek IV, or French IV, or German III.
FOURTH YEAR.	First Term.	Arithmetic with methods. Grammar with methods. Civics (½ term). School Economy and School Law (½ term). Teaching.	Physical Geography with methods. Grammar with methods. Arithmetic with methods. German IV. Teaching.
	Second Term.	American History. History and Science of Education. Teaching.	American History. History and Science of Education Teaching.

Two-year English Course.

FIRST YEAR.

First Term

Psychology.
General methods (½ term).
Primary methods (½ term).
Elementary Geography methods (½ term).
Number methods (½ term).
Civics and School Law.
Science methods (½ term).
Language methods (½ term).

Second Term.

Grammar with methods.
Music II (½ term).
Drawing II (½ term).
Rhetoric II.
American History.
Geometry II (½ term).

SECOND YEAR.

First term.

Arithmetic with methods.
Geography with methods.
Drawing methods (¼ term).
Music methods (¼ term).
Teaching.

Second Term.

History and Science of Education (½ term).
Astronomy (½ term).
English Literature II.
Teaching.

Two-year Classical Course.

(Three years for students who have entered the nominal school in one of the usual ways.)

The same as the English, with the exception that astronomy and 10 weeks of English literature are dropped and one term of Latin and one term of Greek, French or German are added.

Any student who possesses at entrance a State certificate or a diploma from a recognised college or university may, at the discretion of the Faculty, be graduated at the end of one year's attendance.

Normal Primary and Kindergarten Course.

FIRST YEAR.

First Term.

Reading, General History I.
Biology I.
Drawing I.
Music I.

Second Term.

Physics I.
Music II (½ term).
Drawing II (½ term).
Biology II.
Rhetoric I.
Physical Training.

SECOND YEAR.

First Term.

Rhetoric II.
English Literature I.
General methods (½ term).
Primary methods (½ term).
Kindergarten methods.
Kindergarten observations.

Second Term.

Geography with methods.
American History.
Drawing methods (¼ term).
Music methods (¼ term).
Number methods (½ term).
Language methods (½ term).
Kindergarten methods.
Kindergarten observations.

THIRD YEAR.

First Term.	*Second Term.*
Psychology.	Teaching in Kindergarten.
History of Education (½ term).	Teaching in Primary Department.
Civics and School Law.	
Grammar with methods.	
Arithmetic with methods.	
Kindergarten methods.	

Special Kindergarten Course.

(Two years, open to Graduates of any New York State Normal School.)

The work of the Normal Primary and Kindergarten Course, in so far as it teaches kindergarten methods, especially through Fröbel's philosophy, child-study and applied psychology, special work in drawing, modelling, music, etc., nature study, etc.

NOTE.—Roman numerals indicate terms of 9 weeks—thus, Physics I means the first term of 19 weeks in physics. The expression ½ term means 10 weeks. Unless the contrary is stated, the subject extends through a full term.

APPENDIX D.

Training Arrangements in the State of Massachusetts.

In Massachusetts, the training classes and schools, or practising schools, as they are variously called, are disconnected from the high schools. Candidates for admission must have graduated from a high school, or have undergone an equivalent course. It is to be remembered that the leaving examinations are conducted solely by the teachers. This, however, is by no means equivalent to saying that entrance is easy. The candidates being often more numerous than the vacancies in a particular institution, a competitive examination is held. The training schools of Lowell and Cambridge demand that candidates should have, already graduated in a normal school, or should be graduates of a university or a recognised college. Hence it is apparent that, in some cases, the diploma of a training school is of more value in obtaining a situation than is that of a normal school. Indeed, the whole system of Massachusetts is characterised by fluidity and variety. Teachers are drafted out, in order of excellence, from the schools or classes, as vacancies occur. Nor are diplomas the guarantee of employment for life or even for stated periods; as a general rule, a teacher must stand for re-election in his post every June. As for the nature of the courses, it is impossible to lay down any rule. Sometimes the instruction proceeds largely by way of lectures; sometimes the pupils spend nearly their whole time listening or teaching in selected schools throughout the town. The curriculum of Lowell Training School and the time-table for the second semester of the school at River Fall are detailed as examples. Each of these is a school for girls. It will be noted that method and practice start early; that, at the latter institution, much time is given to practical teaching; and that much leisure is allowed for private study. The reason of these features is that the girls are well advanced on entering. Some exhibits of work from Lowell were on view; they showed mature thought and good power of marshalling facts; notable among them were essays on the play of Hamlet:—"Outline of the play," "Character of Hamlet," "Was Hamlet mad or not?"

Massachusetts has ten State and other City normal schools. There is some uniformity in rules of admission. It is necessary that a candidate (1) be 16

years of age if a girl, 17 if a youth; (2) have passed through a four years' course at a high school (or its equivalent) with a good record; (3) pass a written and an oral examination for entry. The courses of study vary from two to four years. Graduates of colleges and teachers of experience can go through a special course in one year. Each school has a marked individuality —one specialises in drawing, etc.

A few words may be said about the Bridgewater State Normal School, both as an example of the institution in Massachusetts, and because there are some noteworthy points in its methods. To begin with, the first condition regarding the entrance examination is that no candidate will be accepted whose written work in English is notably deficient in clear and accurate expressions, spelling, punctuation, idiom or division of paragraphs. The books set in English are a peculiarly good selection of poetry and prose; and certain English classics are also prescribed for study of subject-matter, form and structure, grammar, and historical and literary bearings, etc. The school does not aim directly at giving any general education to its students; it takes them through the subjects of the Public School curriculum merely in order that they may learn the method of teaching it. "The Normal School is made professional, not by the exclusion of these subjects from its course, but by the inclusion of the educational study of them; all the subjects of the Normal School are to be studied in their direct bearing upon the teaching process, and also to get a broader view of their scope and meaning. * * * * The student must think the object as the learner thinks it, he must also think the process by which the learner knows, and he must think the means the teacher is to use to cause the learner to take the steps of this process." To attain this end, the pupil, after preparing a portion of a subject, is called upon either to present it in a clear and logical form, or to teach it, to the remainder of the class, which, together with the teacher, passes criticisms upon the methods employed. In addition to this, observation and practice in teaching are commenced at the beginning and end respectively of sometimes the second, sometimes the third, year of residence. The study of the child, both typical and individual, forms here, as elsewhere in America, an important part of the training. The courses offered are :—(1) The elementary course of two to three years, qualifying to teach in primary and grammar grades. It includes English, mathematics, elementary science, with geography, physiology and hygiene, history, drawing, vocal music, physical and manual training, and the professional subjects, especially the study of man. (2) The intermediate course of three years, including all subjects of the elementary course, with electives from the regular course, and more extended practice in the Model School. It gives better opportunity for employment. (3) The regular course of four years, including all subjects of the elementary course, with special educational study of mathematics, science, language and history. The diploma fits graduates to be teachers in high schools, principals of grammar schools and some high schools, normal school teachers and superintendents of schools. There are also a kindergarten course and special courses for college graduates and teachers. It is characteristic that admission to the kindergarten course requires qualifications no lower than does admission to other courses, and, if taken alone, occupies two years; pupils are, however, advised to devote one year to it after graduating in the elementary course.

CURRICULUM FOR LOWELL TRAINING SCHOOL.

I.—Reading and Expression.—(1) Vocal training, (2) Harmonic training of body, (3) Study of literature as related to expression, (4) Lyric, epic, dramatic, and narrative poetry.

II.—Art.—Greek, Egyptian and Renaissance Art, Drawing, Music, through the study of great composers and their works.

III.—Psychology and child study.—The usual subjects (development of senses, &c.,) and physiology, with study of structure and functions of nervous system, child study, pursued through (*a*) facts gained by personal observation, (*b*) reminiscence method, (*c*) study of individual child, (*d*) statistical method, (*e*) study by means of literature and painting.

IV.—History of Education.

V.—Educational Classics.—Portions of Plato's Republic, Xenophon's Cyropœdia, Montaigne, Locke, Pestalozzi's Leonard and Gertrude, Rousseau's Emile, Fröbel's Education of Man, &c.

VI.—School Management.—(1) Lighting and ornamentation of school-room, &c.; (2) Organization, grading, promotions, programmes, &c., (3) The Recitation—(*a*) preparation of lessons by teacher, (*b*) plan of lessons, (*c*) assignment of lessons, (*d*) preparation by pupil, (*e*) training to study, (*f*) teaching devices, (*g*) illustrative material; (4) Reviews and examination; (5) School government—personality, confidence, character-building through freedom, natural and artificial incentives; duties of teachers, such as attendance at institutes and associations, and travel as a means of growth, parents' meetings, exhibitions, social evenings, methods of teaching.

VII.—Practical Training.—Pupils are given full charge of the nine grades of the Primary and Grammar Departments of the Elementary School. They teach from 8-30 to 10 A.M., and from 2 to 4 P.M. Lesson in Normal Department from 10 to 12.

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES AT RIVER FALL NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

Second Semester in two-year Course (First Semester not on Exhibit).

Time.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
8·45 . .	.....	Opening Exercises.			
		SENIORS.			
9—9-45 .	Division A. Methods in Nature Study and Technical language.	Division A. Methods in Nature Study and Technical language.	Special subject	Division A. Methods in Geography and History.	Division A. Methods in Geography and History.
9-45—11-30 .		Divisions A and B, in charge of classes.			
1-45—2-30 .		Division B, same work as for Division A from 9 to 9-45.			
2-30—4 .		Divisions A and B, in charge of classes.			
4—5 . .		Conference with Teachers.			
		JUNIORS.			
9—9-45 .	History . .	History . .	Drawing .	Methods in Technical language.	Methods in Technical language.
9-45—10-30 .	Methods in Geography.	Physics . .	Methods in Drawing.	Physics . .	Methods in language and literature.
10-30—10-45.		Recreation period.			
10-45—11-30	Methods in Arithmetic.	Methods in Geography.	Methods in Drawing.	Methods in Arithmetic.	Study period.
1-45—2-30 .	Methods in Reading.	Study period .	Mathematics .	History . .	History.
2-30—3-15 .	Ditto .	Methods in Nature Study.	Principles of teaching.	Study period .	Methods in Nature Study.
3-15—4 .	Physical culture.	School laws and book-keeping.	Study period .	Methods in Music.	Story-telling.

In the last quarter, two periods a day are given to observation and practice in the rooms.

III.—A REPORT ON THE BOMBAY TRAINING COLLEGE FOR SECONDARY TEACHERS.

BY

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Bombay

THE BOMBAY TRAINING COLLEGE FOR SECONDARY TEACHERS.

HISTORY.

The Bombay Training College for Secondary Teachers was opened in January 1906, accommodation being found for it in the buildings of the Elphinstone High School. It was opened under the charge of myself and the Vice-Principal, Mr. D. H. Vachha, M.A. (Bombay).

The students fall into two classes, (1) stipendiary students, (2) select teachers already in the Department. The latter are mostly undergraduates; the former are all graduates from various parts of the Presidency. They receive stipends of Rs. 30 a month, except the two M.A. students, who receive Rs. 50. The select teachers number twelve; the students seventeen.

Applications for stipends are received up to a fixed date in December; a short list of candidates is posted and a final selection is made after an interview. It is necessary to include in this list men of various attainments, so that the various needs of the schools may be met. We are able to begin work in the first week of January; the college year lasts to the end of September, with the usual hot weather vacation. The equipment grant of the college was Rs. 2,000; the annual grant is Rs. 500, which has been supplemented this year by a special grant of Rs. 300.

General Method.

The work done by the college may be reviewed under three principal heads—

(1) Lectures.
(2) Model Lessons.
(3) Criticism Lessons.

(1) Lectures.

(*a*) Mental and Moral Science.

This subject always occupies one hour a week. I have taken it myself, and during the first two years delivered a course of special lectures on it. In these lectures Metaphysics, Ethics and Psychology were all treated with definite aims. Dealing with Metaphysics, I insisted on a spiritual view of life and on the positive value of religion; urging at the same time that spiritual activity means the right use of material objects and opportunities, that the highest truth is attained not by neglecting but by cultivating the senses. I feel that until this view is accepted by our teachers, they will never lay the foundations which western education demands. Without these convictions the work of the school room will appear superfluous and unintelligible, and will degenerate into a meagre and paltry routine.

Ethics is the science of ends, and it concerns the teacher thus far, that every teacher should know what type of man he wants to produce. Whether he takes his ends from tradition, from the actual needs of society, or from a consideration of man's powers as revealed by psychological analysis, he should know definitely what he is aiming at.

Psychology is the natural history of mind. It shows how the operations of the mind are actually related to each other, and it supplies rules by which we can control them. It shows how motives can be encouraged, habits formed and so on.

Though convinced of the value of this course of lectures, I felt that they did not yield examinable results and also that the students would not be satisfied unless they were put on to a book by some standard author. Accordingly I placed Sully (Teacher's Hand-book of Psychology) on the syllabus, choosing this book because its practical suggestions about children are excellent, and the author's other books (Children's Ways and the complete Psychology) afford openings for further study. Its style however is hard, and during the present year I have felt bound, in the interests of the undergraduate teachers, to lecture on it as a text book. Thus my own course of lectures has been relinquished. I regret this however, especially the loss of the Ethics, and when the undergraduates have all paid us a visit and the college becomes homogeneous shall probably revert to the former plan.

(*b*) Method and Class Management.

Both the Vice-Principal and myself lecture regularly on this subject. His attainments specially mark him out for the charge of the mathematical and scientific work, and he lectures on method chiefly with reference to these subjects. I do not touch these, but cover the rest of the ground. It is needless to say that during the time devoted to this subject we expound the principles of the model lessons given in the school.

(*c*) The History of Education.

This is taken by the Vice-Principal, who devotes an hour a week to it. The text book in use is Quick (Educational Reformers), which he supplements with his own views. He has given special attention to educational systems of the past in India, Hindoo and Mahomedan.

(2) Model Lessons.

The reader has probably observed that the amount of time given to lectures is very small; that devoted to model lessons is very large. There is in my own case, to some extent, a personal reason for this; when I took charge of the college I had had no experience of class room work in India, and was quite ignorant what methods suited the boys and how much could be got through at each stage in a term's work. It is essential that a lecturer on method should know this thoroughly, and there is hardly any way of learning it except by personal experience. But there are other reasons why the staff of a training college should do a great deal of work themselves. If they do not, their pupils will never believe that the principles they enunciate can be and should be put into practice, and they will not realise that a school room should be alive. There is a life above and beyond formal principles that only experience can reveal, and only if we can communicate the secret of this have we fulfilled the purpose for which we exist. Of course a good lecturer on method may not always be a good schoolmaster, but if we have to choose, we should certainly choose in India, for the purposes of a training college, a good schoolmaster.

Our model lessons are given in the Elphinstone High and Middle schools. The former contains about 700, the latter about 500 boys. It may be well to say here a few words on our relations with these schools. These have not been defined by the Department, though certain understandings have been

reached between the headmaster and myself. We have no authority whatever over the school, and have no power to change its time-table or its next books. The school has always met our wishes, however, and we have compromised certain points on which our interests clashed. For it must be frankly stated that the interests of a training college are not altogether compatible with those of the boys in a practising school. This is most obvious in the case of the criticism lessons given by the novices of the college, which are in almost every case a complete waste of the boys' time. But difficulties may arise even over model lessons by the staff. They may not be satisfied with the text books or the syllabus of the school, and who is to decide what shall be done? It appears to me that if a member of the staff wishes to make a definite experiment in teaching, and is willing to make himself responsible for the term's work of a standard, he should have freedom to introduce any book he thinks proper, or even to change the school syllabus. If however, he is merely taking one or two casual lessons with a standard he must conform to the usages of the school. With regard to criticism lessons by novices, it is important, and the college staff must themselves see to this, that no standard should suffer unduly from the experiments of beginners. In our relations with the Elphinstone High School there is a special difficulty over the definite preparation for the Matriculation Examination and, as the prestige of the school depends largely on its success at this examination, the headmaster naturally objects to any interference on our part with the regular science lessons. On the other hand, for our purposes, model lessons in science are necessary. The present arrangement gives us one hour a week for scientific lessons with the Lower Seventh Standard, during the second term of the year. This means that a course of ten model lessons may be given by the Vice-Principal, in illustration of scientific teaching. It is an absolute minimum, but under the circumstances we must regard it as enough. I may say here that in spite of the difficulties alluded to, I think the plan under which we work is the best one. I cannot see how a small practising school, if much used for practising, can be a good school. It seems to me much better that the school so used should be a very large one, when the interferences with

the daily work may be spread over the largest possible area. If, however, the school is a large one, then it seems to me it must have a headmaster who is in the strict sense a headmaster and is recognised as such. This no doubt creates a sort of dual authority, and offers a chance of friction between the principal and the headmaster. It has been suggested, and it is the view of my Vice-Principal, that the danger of this friction would be lessened if the headmaster were formally added to the staff of the Training College as Vice-Principal. He would then share the interests of the Training College, and similarly the Principal, taking the School under his charge, could also share the responsibility for that institution. I believe myself however that the situation could not really be changed by this course, and the spheres of responsibility under this system would be more difficult to delimit. The present arrangements have so far worked satisfactorily; should serious differences of opinion at any time arise between us and the school the issue would have to be referred to the Director, and possibly the situation might be reconsidered.

With regard to model lessons I hold strongly that we should not give isolated lessons with many different standards. The objections to such lessons are as follows:—

(1) All personal touch between the teacher and the boys disappears. There is no possibility of adapting a question or a method to a particular boy.

(2) The necessity of knowing one's foundations is forgotten. Progress is lost sight of; also that part of the teacher's art which consists of referring to past work, revising and consolidating it.

(3) Consequently, the attention of students is directed exclusively to the preparation of lessons and their delivery in accordance with a preconceived idea. Thus their cardinal error is confirmed—the error of concentrating their attention on their own language instead of thinking what their boys know or do not know, or are learning or not learning. The deplorable habit of lecturing to boys is fostered, a habit which is the greatest enemy of the Indian teacher.

What I prefer is to take a subject completely for a term. Thus I have taken, in one year, a term's work in geography with the beginners (two hours a week), a term in geography with the 3rd standard (two hours a week); English with beginners (four or five hours a week); composition with the Matriculation standard (one hour a week); history with the sixth standard (two hours); and English with the sixth standard (two hours). These lessons present the students with sufficient types of practical work. It would be too much to expect that all students should attend at every lesson; rotation lists are made out. The total attendance of each student at the college amounts to 16 or 18 hours a week.

(3) Criticism Lessons.

By these are meant lessons given by the students in our presence, also in the presence of a number of themselves. According to the practice of the Vice-Principal these are made more formal than I care for; my own plan is to call upon the students in turn to give part of the lessons which I regularly teach. This naturally I do more often in the second part of the term, as opportunity arises. With regard to the mistakes they make, I sometimes correct them at once, in the presence of the class, sometimes reserve them for a brief treatment in my lecture hours. It seems to me waste of time to criticise the performances of novices in detail; I merely emphasize cardinal and conspicuous errors.

I believe the use of criticism lessons before the boys is quite limited. For one thing, they waste too much of the boys' time; for another the criticism has to be reserved for a subsequent occasion and loses force. I prefer, for history and geography, lessons delivered to a class of the students themselves. Of course there is an unreality about the answers, but most of the work is real enough. Criticism can be administered promptly and what is done badly can be done over again. This method however is not applicable to language teaching.

All students have two hours a week of drawing. The Vice-Principal takes one in Geometric Drawing, and I one in Black Board Drawing. This latter subject will become very different in a year or two, when we get students who have been through

Mr. Burns' new course. It will always be necessary however to teach students how to use the Black Board.

One very important hour is spent on Phonetics and Elocution. I am by no means a specialist in Phonetics, and believe the specialists overestimate its service. However, the students are introduced to the subject; and Elocution is carefully taught. I have adopted some breathing exercises from Mr. Hulbert's books, (Breathing for Voice Production: published by Messrs. Novello,) and attach great importance to speaking slowly, clearly, and pleasantly. I also draw attention to the nature of metre and the delivery of poetry, a topic which colleges unfortunately neglect.

The students write weekly exercises for the Vice-Principal and myself alternately. The subjects chosen are usually of general interest, (What can schools do for the Vernacular? How far is it desirable that parents should be kept in touch with the school, and how can this be effected?) They are not encouraged to extend these essays beyond four pages, and verbiage is strictly repressed.

Great importance is attached to good writing. It is definitely understood that no certificate will be given to any one whose handwriting is not satisfactory, both in the exercises shown up to me and in the certificate examination. Special instructions are given in writing and very good results have been attained.

Certificate Examination.

We may now proceed to speak of the college certificate. It is granted by a Board, appointed by the Director of Public Instruction. This Board need not necessarily contain any member of the college staff, but hitherto the Director has nominated myself, the Vice-Principal, and Mr. Prior, the Educational Inspector for the Central Division. The materials submitted to the Board include:—

(1) Reports on the work of each student throughout the year.

(2) The weekly exercises written and the note books kept by him.

(3) His answers to certain examination papers.

(1) These reports notice explicitly certain points in the work of each student. The Vice-Principal and myself each write our reports separately before we present them to the Board.

I may say at once that there is a certain unreality about them. We do not see enough of the work of each student to say with confidence whether, *e.g.*, he is a disciplinarian or not. The amount of practical work each student does amounts at most to about six hours in two terms, and it would not be fair to judge him finally on that. Still, we can distinguish really bad students from good ones, so the system may pass. Some points we can ascertain for certain, *e.g.*, whether a man can use the black board or not. Last year we introduced a practical examination on this point, requiring each student, in the presence of the Board (*a*) to fill a black board with writing, (*b*) to draw either a map or a Geometric figure or a piece of chemical apparatus. In general, the students understand that their demeanour throughout the year, regularity, and interest will all be weighed when they are reported on, especially when their class is under consideration.

(2) The system on which the note books are kept is as follows. It is expected that the students will always have paper and pencil with them, and will always be prepared to jot down anything of practical interest they hear or see. (They are not expected to show up notes on general questions of Psychology or Ethics). When they go home they will arrange these notes on loose sheets of paper, under appropriate headings, *e.g.*, "Marks," "Home Lessons," and so on. By degrees the headings selected will grow in number and the amount entered under each heading will also grow. A month before the end of the second term they write out these notes in a substantial note book, carefully rearranging and digesting the matter, but not adding anything from text books. They thus make for themselves a souvenir of the college, and a manual of the instructions which they have actually heard there. I have found that all the students have taken to this system very kindly, and in many cases have produced books beautifully written and accurate in their contents. Of course a few misapprehensions may be found here and there, but on

the whole I think they are surprisingly few. The examination papers are three in number, two at least being necessary for the certificate. Hitherto, the Vice-Principal and myself have set them and submitted them to Mr. Prior before printing them. As a result of course they have been closely based on what we have taught. The objections to teachers examining their own pupils are well known; and I think ultimately it would be well that our papers should be partly set by some one engaged in similar work elsewhere in India. But up till now I think the present plan has been the right one, because it has given us freedom to experiment and choose our own lines, and for other reasons which I will consider later on in connection with the question whether such a college as ours should be affiliated to the University. At present we have gained this, that our pupils look on the examination as a fair one, organically connected with their work. I have tried to make them take pride in their answers, binding the best of them in a morocco cover with gilt lettering, a practice which I propose from time to time to continue. Good writing is strictly insisted on, and though the time for papers is nominally three hours I have allowed a little grace to slow writers.

Aims and Results.

It would now be expedient to pass from particulars to generals, and to try to describe in the broadest possible terms the methods and aims of our Institution. As to our aims we wish to make our pupils feel in the innermost recesses of their souls that teaching is an art and not a science, and it must be judged by results. A good teacher is one under whom his boys make progress. The best intentions, the fullest equipment of knowledge, and even the most conscientious study of lessons, these are all preparatory; the great point remains, how much in virtue of all these can a teacher impart? Accordingly one great lesson to be learned is, that a teacher's thoughts must be centered not upon himself, but on his class.

Then we try to send away men who will continue in motion when they have left us. As promoting this end, in the first place, we make what general appeals we can. There is the

patriotic appeal, so far as it can be handled. There is also, the antipodes of this, the selfish appeal to personal interest. We try to make our pupils feel that the education of the young may actually, to themselves, become a source of the greatest pleasure and interest. Selfish as this consideration is of course, it is a refined selfishness, and it stands close to sympathetic interest in the young. Hindu boys are responsive to an interested teacher, and much is achieved when such teachers once feel and realise that the affection of their pupils is open to them and worth having.

Moreover, we try to set our men doing something besides reading books. To most of them this is the only form of activity familiar and congenial. But I have tried to make it a rule that every generation of students should leave some trace of their presence in the college. The students of the first year made us some vernacular texts for the walls; those of the second year a large history chart; and at present I have started extensive physical records of the boys. These may some day prove of great interest.

We also take our students on excursions to places of interest in or near Bombay. We have visited cotton mills, the B., B. and C. I. Locomotive works, the Gas works, P. and O. Ships, the Victoria Blind School, Karli, Elephanta, and other places. It is hoped that the teachers will repay the trouble thus taken with their own pupils some day.

The books actually sanctioned for use are:—

Sully (Teacher's Text book of Psychology); Quick (Educational Reformers); Landon (School Management). It is understood that a careful study of these will be sufficient to place anybody in the first class. Our library however contains over 350 volumes, and students may read as much more as they please. I do not much encourage reading. It sometimes happens that a student comes to me and says "what books shall I read?" I seldom give him any answer except "whatever you like." This may seem chilling, but if a man is really disposed to read he will soon find something in the library that interests him, and whatever he finds in this way will do him good. There is plenty in the lectures to suggest further reading; and I specially recommend men to take

countries, and read up in a systematic way their history and geography. They have Chambers's Encyclopædia, and Stieler's Hand-atlas, and an excellent selection of geography books to assist them, and geography is a subject to which we have paid a good deal of attention. We take in many educational magazines, though I think, to the students, they are of little use.

What then, it may be asked, is the visible result of these efforts? What is our certificate worth? We may begin by stating what we do not achieve. We do not send away men who are expert teachers; that is the one thing a training college cannot possibly do. The amount of practice requisite to make an expert teacher may be put at one year's continuous work for an exceptionally gifted man and five years for most people. There can be no question of affording much practice in a training college. I do not believe in letting men practise without skilled supervision, even if the interests of the boys did not forbid this. Accordingly our men leave college with everything to learn in the way of practical skill.

The question is, however, do they carry away with them any genuine impulse? Will they apply what they have learned in the way of principles? Time alone can show this; we shall know if we have been successful five years from now. At present the evidence is conflicting. One day I am told by the headmaster of a large school that our teachers do not ask for so much leave as their predecessors. I am thankful to hear this; it is something gained. Another day I visit an old pupil, and find him in charge of a large school, where all his class rooms are lighted from one side of the building. The desks are so arranged that the light in every case comes from the right hand. He knows very well he has been taught it should come from the left hand, but it has not occurred to him to turn the desks round. This is depressing, and a visit to our old teachers would no doubt bring to light many instances of similar apathy. Of course our men go often into discouraging surroundings. The older generation of schoolmasters receive them with scepticism and suspicion, and matters are not mended if they begin by asking for revolutions in old arrangements. I caution them to begin by working cheerfully under

the conditions that are offered them, and only to ask for changes when they prove that they have deserved consideration. There is a danger however that, meeting with discouragements, they may sink into old grooves. It must always be remembered that "training" teachers does not make things easier for them. On the contrary it introduces them to problems the very existence of which was previously unknown to them; problems which are rarely quite soluble and call for changing methods of attack. It calls upon them everywhere to substitute care for negligence, intelligence for mechanical routine. So, unless we have put into them a new impulse, they will not stay the course that lies before them. Whether that new impulse has been in any measure roused or not, time will show.

One thing is certain, that they take away with them some definite information about school furniture and books. They know what a good atlas should be like; and where one can be bought; I have specially directed their attention to pictures for schools. Catalogues of all kinds are carefully preserved in our library, and students are exhorted to make themselves familiar with their contents.

I am not anxious to make the pass standard for our certificate very high. It is rarely possible for us to be quite certain that a man will be a failure; so much depends on his perseverance, a quality most difficult to gauge. I have seen a notable instance of a man improving rapidly about whose certificate we have many doubts. Nevertheless, we did actually refuse certificates to three men last year, two of whom did excellent paper work. With regard to the First Class, that is reserved for men of whose capacities as teachers we have definitely good opinions. It may be regarded as a real distinction. It cannot be earned by paper work alone, though we should not give it to a man whose paper work was bad. In the case of deputed teachers who are undergraduates, we should be content for a First Class with a relatively lower standard of paper work, if we felt that the man was an interested teacher.

On the whole it will be seen that as regards results I wish to maintain a cautious attitude. Some good has been done; one cannot yet say how much.

Perhaps it is worth noting that our examination papers are not marked.

Defects and unsolved Problems.

It is now time to point out some blanks in our system, some doubtful points and problems not yet solved. In the first place we do nothing for the study of classical languages, Sanskrit and Persian. It cannot be doubted that there is room for lectures on method in connection with them, though I am inclined to suppose that the general level of teaching in these subjects is high. Nor do we do anything for the vernacular. It will be remembered that our teachers go not only to the High but to the Middle schools, where all work is in the vernacular. Of course they may apply in these schools the principles they have learned in connection with High-school work, but I am sure the application will remain imperfect. We want to set before them models in two directions, models of methods in connection with the very young and models of correct and pure vernacular speech. Until they actually hear men who can speak the vernacular slowly and clearly they will not even attempt to improve on the rapid, noisy and indistinct utterance which is common. Moreover now that the vernacular has a place of its own in the High school, it is necessary that some ability should be devoted to the task of settling what is to be done for it. It should be clearly recognised for instance that to translate from the vernacular into English is no service to the vernacular. This work belongs to English hours, though the converse work belongs to vernacular hours; model lessons however in both kinds of work are urgently needed. Moreover we need some authority on the question what vernacular classics should be studied and how; and some one to teach essay writing in the vernacular. Of course we can never hope at the college to deal with all vernaculars at the same time, partly because there are five of them represented among our students, partly because there are only two in use at the school. But something should be done at any rate for the school vernaculars, and I will presently indicate how. I should also like some day to see Indian music provided for, as far as we have really musical students. Government has already introduced this subject into the vernacular

training college at Poona, with the aid of the Gayan Somaj, and something might perhaps be done at the secondary college also.

A general subject or body of subjects which receives little attention from us at present, is the subject of the educationist, the relation of education to society and the needs of the time, the settlement of the curriculum, &c. This subject is not specially the province of schoolmasters and has nothing to do with the training of practical teachers, but it is desirable that schoolmasters should be taught to think about it in a logical manner. It is at present omitted from our course because we have no time to deal with it.

We have very little provision for athletics. Of course we have no ground of our own, but the school kindly permits us to share the use of things. The cost of materials however is a serious consideration, since our students are few and poor, and many of them, who do not play games, can hardly be expected to subscribe towards their cost. If once however it be conceded that games are not purely an amusement in the case of teachers, perhaps some funds may be allotted to meet their cost.

We may hope some day to possess a good museum, which will serve as an example of what a school museum should be. India is a country where such a museum more easily than elsewhere may be made complete and useful. If schools in various parts of India would combine to help each other, interesting specimens might be procured and exchanged at a minimum of expense, in great variety. I published the details of a scheme for this purpose in *Indian Education*, but did not secure the co-operation of a single school. This result was only another instance of the apathy which paralyses every educational effort in India ; but it may be hoped that within the bounds of the Presidency at any rate some of our old students will interest themselves in the scheme. Some such arrangement would vastly increase the value of object lessons in our schools.

Suggestions for Development.

As regards our own development, it may be said that the first thing we need is buildings. The buildings we need most

emphatically are quarters. Bombay is in any case a most unpleasant centre for those who have not been brought up to its circumstances, and at present every year in the first term there occurs an outbreak of plague. How much real danger to students this involves one cannot say, but there is certainly some, and coming on to the top of the usual discomforts it upsets the students' minds and practically ruins the term's work. Moreover, our students, coming from all parts of the Presidency, do not bring with them any common spirit; and there is no older generation in residence to hand on a tradition. They do not come to us with much satisfaction; the fact uppermost in their minds is probably that whereas their predecessors started in the Department immediately after taking their degree on Rs. 40 and counted their services towards pension, they have to pass through a year on Rs. 30, which does not so count. Everything therefore points to the desirability of providing quarters for them, where they would be comfortable and work contentedly and indulge in a little idealism. If quarters for the Principal and Vice-Principal were also provided, they could see something personally of the students, which is now practically impossible.

Buildings of other kinds are not essential; their absence does not affect the spirit of our proceedings. But I may indicate what those buildings should be if they were erected. They should include one large theatre for model lessons This should have a raised seat running round it, like a billiard room where the student could sit and watch. Of course the desks in this room would have to be a medium height, too large for small boys and too small for large ones; compromise is necessary everywhere in practice. Then there should be a library; and a museum, with specimens of school furniture and apparatus; and a separate lecture room for lectures to the students. This last is rendered necessary by the fact that the desks in the theatre would be too small for them.

It is a further question whether there should be a laboratory. I certainly think there should not; the arrangements for teaching science should be shared between the college and the school.

It appears to me important that the theatre and library should be practically under the roof of the school. It will be a serious grievance of the school boys if they have to come over to the school for lessons, especially in the Bombay monsoon. Much time will be wasted and there will be the chance of boys playing truant.

There should be a garden attached to the college where specimens of Indian trees and crops should be grown. This could be done at a minimum of expense. I think also a tennis court should be provided.

There is next the question how far the staff of the college should be enlarged. I have a plan in view which would I think be both economical and fruitful of results. I do not think the directing staff need be enlarged, especially when it is remembered that in a few years, when all the undergraduate members of the department have passed through a year's training, there will only be seventeen stipendiary students present. It would however be possible to add to it from time to time assistance from members of the school staff. With this end in view some of the ablest of the old pupils of the College should be stationed at the school, so as to be available. (This would incidentally have the effect of compensating the school for the disturbance to their work which our presence inevitably causes). The assistance they would render would chiefly be that they would supply teaching models, and, as required, would supervise practising lessons by the students. When a man was selected as suitable for this charge, two or three students would be detailed to attend his class, and he would be instructed to give them from time to time teaching work to do, under his supervision and criticism. Especially such men might render assistance in connection with the vernacular. Thus our students would receive more practice, and some blanks in our system would be filled up. I do not think at first any teachers should be permanently entrusted with this work; a certain sum should be placed at the disposal of the Principal of the college, and it should be left to him at his discretion, looking to the men available and the needs of the year, to select members of the school staff and pay them according to the work entrusted to them. Of course it might

happen that it would be worth while to raise the amount given to a specially good man and keep him at the school, helping the training college, for many years. Thus something like an educational atmosphere and educational enthusiasm might be created. One genuine centre in the Presidency would be of immense value.

It so happens in Bombay that there is within a few yards of the High and Middle Schools a large primary school with modern buildings, the Lord Harris School. This fortunate circumstance opens us a great opportunity for creating an educational centre. There is at present in Bombay no training school for primary teachers, a lamentable state of affairs in a city of a million people. I should propose that this school be made the centre of a primary training college, with a first rate kindergarten teacher attached. We could exchange some services with this college and, especially, our teachers could see the foundations of their work laid.

It is worth while to digress awhile on this topic. Only the practical schoolmaster knows how strictly all work is conditioned by its foundations, and any improvement in school methods must begin at the bottom. For this reason during the past two years I have done a great deal of work in the middle school.* Most of our graduates somewhat look down on this work, and it is an important part of our labours to convince them that this work is as dignified as any other. The Department, I could suggest, must do its part by sending able men into these schools. For us, to affect substantially the methods of the Matriculation class remains a distant goal, which we shall only reach in the course of years.

Relations with the Department.

We here light on the problem of the relation of the training college to the Codes and traditional methods of the Department. This is a difficult and delicate question and is probably destined to give rise to some trouble. Certain principles are clear. The Department through its Inspectors controls school methods, and not only must our teachers carry out

* Two subjects which belong to this stage, and should properly be taken in the vernacular, (Geography and Object lessons,) I have taught in the adjoining Indo-British school, by the kind permission of the Head Master.

their instructions but we must qualify them to do so. For example, the Department encourages upright writing; the college, therefore, must instruct men how to teach upright writing. But the college must also have liberty to expound its own views and to criticise, in a reasonable spirit, any educational system, even if the Department prefers it. Thus personally, I should like to see a great deal of the mark system abolished, and I criticise it freely, as it exists. The college however ought to have opportunities to lead educational methods, and men who leave us ought, if they show themselves good teachers, to have opportunities to depart from precedent.

This will not be possible unless we keep in close touch with the Inspectors. The Director, in accordance with this view, has requested the Inspectors to write us about our old pupils; but it is even more desirable that they should pay us visits and remain with us a day or two every year. They will thus learn what we are aiming at, and after discussion we shall arrive at common principles.

The importance of this will be specially clear in connection with proposed changes in the teaching of English. We have introduced these changes at the college. After my return from Germany, in 1906, I thought proper at any rate to show our Indian teachers what the direct method means. As no books then existed suitable for it, I compiled a series which is still in course of publication, and I have taught this series in the middle school. Government has also sanctioned the use of these books throughout the Presidency. But I doubt if it has been sufficiently realised that the change in method indicated requires our ablest hands to carry it through, and that unless headmasters know what it means, and unless Inspectors guide them, nothing but failure will result. The moral is that both headmasters and Inspectors should confer with us more and see more of our methods in practice.

To keep in touch with our old students will always be a problem. I have tried to make them view the educational magazine of the Presidency (*Indian Education*), which I edit, as a medium between us, and have encouraged them to write for it. As yet, however, they show little inclination to do so.

There is one suggestion regarding our methods which has been made and may be discussed, that students should not

come to us, immediately they take their degree, but after one year's experimental service in the school. It is urged that they would then feel the need for training and would take more interest in what they see at the college. There is much force in this argument; it is certainly true that the deputed teachers appreciate our work more than the stipendiary students. On the other hand there are the following objections to the proposal:—

(1) It postpones the final rejection of a man till a very late period, when perhaps he is too old to enter Government service in any other Department. This might to some extent be met by a Government Resolution that men if rejected, (if duly certified as to their character,) should receive two years' grace from other Departments. Still, we should feel very reluctant to reject a man after two years' expectations, and the system would be too unfavourable to weak men.

(2) It would inflict a good deal of experimental work on the schools. On the whole the present system appears the best.

Relations with the Aided Schools.

One may remark that the college so far has not been of much service to aided schools. They never send men to us, though five students would be received every year free of charge, and the cost to them would be only Rs. 270 per man, if they could get men to serve them on the same terms as Government. Probably they do not believe in the value of training. We have two open lectures every week in the evening, which vary from term to term, so that in two years any Bombay teacher might hear a course on Method, Mental or Moral Science, and the History of Education. Very few attend however; I am told they reserve their spare energy for "private tuition." I am in favour myself of making access to the college as easy as possible for any teacher in Bombay. If a theatre is built for us on the lines indicated above I should like to see it open to any accredited teacher to attend at any time, so long as we had accommodation. They would gradually find out it was worth coming.

Relations with the University.

One question remains, that of our relation to the University, should that body constitute a degree in teaching. It would then probably be suggested that we should prepare pupils for that degree. I believe that such a position would be fatal to us, for the following reasons:—

(1) The possession of a "degree" would be interpreted both by the pupils and by our students to mean more than such a degree possibly could mean; and the attention of students would be distracted from the fact that the college work is preparatory.

(2) Whatever was said about having a practical part of the examination, the written part would inevitably become all important, because the students are not ready for a practical examination at the end of one year's training, and the practical examination would be a very unreal affair.

(3) Such an examinable subject as the History of Education would assume undue importance; though its practical value is almost nil.

Methods are numerous and diverse, and success can be attained in various ways; what is wanted however is not that students should be able to pen descriptions of all these ways so much as that they should have received a deep impression of the success that can be attained by a man who has chosen a few principles for actual practice. But with a written examination as the end in view, what everybody values is the power to write out lists of rules and principles; and the urgent necessity of choosing a few for use is overlooked.

I have already said that I think some assistance from an outsider is desirable. Otherwise we may fall into too narrow a groove; but I trust we shall avoid the rigidity and false direction which would result from our being placed under the control of an outside body.

BOMBAY:
May 28th, 1908.

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